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ABSTRACT

The primary purpose for the preparation of this selected bibliography was to support the research endeavors of the CIC-AID Rural Development Research Project. Periodical publication coverage has included the period of 1955-1965, and, has excluded all foreign language materials. Over 90% of the articles in this volume have been abstracted, and about 900 of the most relevant have been reviewed for the purpose of extracting the most important concepts. The periodicals appear in alphabetical order and chronologically under each journal heading. Under the detailed search system, articles are identified by an arabic numeral and a letter. Then each article and concept is labeled with one or more index numbers. These number codes are listed in six major categories with subtopics: geographical area and country (Africa, Asia, South America, Caribbean, Oceania, Europe, North America), economic development, agricultural development, social change, education development, and political development. A separate system using the same index numbers has been developed to facilitate the search for concepts independently of the search for abstracts. (See SO 000 040 and SO 000 041 for Volumes I and II.) (SBE)

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A REPORT from
the

CENTER for COMPARATIVE POLITICAL ANALYSIS

ED0 40108

BIBLIOGRAPHY ON PLANNED SOCIAL CHANGE

(With Special Reference to Rural Development and Educational Development)

VOLUME I

Periodical Literature

Department of Political Science
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Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455

SO 000 039

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CIC - AID
RURAL DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH PROJECT

ED0 40108

BIBLIOGRAPHY ON PLANNED SOCIAL CHANGE

(With Special Reference to Rural Development and Educational Development)

VOLUME I

Periodical Literature

Prepared By

Center for Comparative Political Analysis

Department of Political Science

University of Minnesota

Preliminary Report for Project Use

Limited Distribution

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PREFACE AND ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This bibliography has been prepared primarily to support the major research endeavors of the CIC-AID Rural Development Research Project. It is presented in this preliminary form primarily for project use. In order to understand the decisions we have made regarding such important matters as the selection of titles for inclusion and the organization of the material, it is necessary to provide some background information about the development of this part of the project.

Our sub-contract specifies the compilation of "a bibliography of project reference materials derived from literature on previous and on-going research in related fields. Both 'research' and 'related fields' are intended to be broadly interpreted...." In a working paper prepared for the elucidation of the contract provisions, works like W. W. Rostow, The Stages of Economic Growth and John Lewis, The Quiet Revolution were given, along with others as examples of relevant materials. If a theoretical treatment of economic development in historical context and a specific analysis of a contemporary developing country are both relevant, this bibliography obviously must cover a wide range of materials.

After the first meetings with the directors, the research teams and the advisory group of the entire Rural Development Project, two points became evident. A bibliography as wide-ranging as that called for by the contract would be of little use to other research teams unless (1) it was annotated in considerable detail, and (2) it was indexed in such a way as to facilitate a rapid and precise search for materials relevant to the various and separate research endeavors. While originally we had not planned to provide such complete annotations or so detailed an indexing and search system, we were convinced that unless some effort was made in these directions our product would not be worthwhile. To the degree that our budget allowed, we have built these two features into the bibliography.

The bibliography appears in three volumes. Volume I includes all of the periodical materials covered; Volume II is devoted to books and book-length monographs; Volume III covers government and United Nations publications, in addition to proceedings of specialized conferences. For detailed matters concerning each of the three volumes, see the specific introduction that follows this preface.

Preparation of the bibliography was under the direction of Professors Richard Blue, Robert T. Holt, and John E. Turner, all of whom were involved at one stage or another in preparing and processing the materials. In the research, and in the collecting, abstracting, and propositionalizing of materials they were assisted by Richard Erikson, David Garnham, Diane Johnson, Susan Lampland, Lawrence Rose, and John Schwestka. Misses Diane Johnson, Beverly Nelson, and Diane Pioske did yeoman service in the mammoth task of typing.

Although many of the abstracts and all of the propositions were prepared by our research team, a majority of the abstracts were adapted from several published abstracts. We would like to thank the publishers of Economic Abstracts and the Commonwealth Agricultural Bureaux that is responsible for publishing World Agricultural Economics and Rural Sociology Abstracts for permission to reproduce these adapted abstracts in this form.

Thanks are also due to the directors of the CIC-AID Rural Development Project, Dr. Ira Baldwin and Mr. Ronald W. Jones, for their support of our undertaking.

The user of this bibliography might well wonder why in this age of advanced computor technology such a long bibliography was not prepared in a machine-readable and therefore machine-searchable form. Our initial predisposition was to move in this direction, but the funds necessary to put the bibliography in this form were not available. We have, however, kept our working materials in such a form that we can eventually put the entire bibliography on computor tape.

Robert T. Holt
Associate Director
Center for Comparative
Political Analysis
January 1, 1967

INTRODUCTION TO VOLUME I

Periodical Literature

The literature which is relevant to the topic of planned social change, even when an attempt is made to concentrate most heavily on materials dealing with rural development and educational development, is both enormous and diffuse. Although this volume runs to over 600 pages and includes materials from over 230 different journals, it must be looked upon as a select bibliography. Within the budget limitations provided by our contract, it was necessary to exclude certain potentially valuable materials on the basis of categorical decisions. Two of these were of major importance. First, we have covered periodical publications systematically only during the period 1955-1965, and, second, we have excluded all foreign language materials. The second criterion was of the greatest consequence; it eliminated material from about two hundred periodicals. Had we included this material, this volume would run to about 1,200 pages.

Over 90 per cent of the articles included in this volume have been abstracted, and about 900 of the most relevant articles have been reviewed for the purpose of extracting the most important propositions.

The periodicals appear in this bibliography in alphabetical order (with several minor exceptions), and the articles appear chronologically under each journal heading. Each journal is identified by an arabic numeral and each article by a letter. The journal Human Organization, for example, is number 105, and each article from Human Organization is given a letter A through UUU. In journals from which more than 26 articles were abstracted, we have used double letters (e.g. AA, BB, etc). In those instances in which an article was propositionalized, the propositions are found immediately after the abstract. In most cases the propositions are stated in a more general form than they were found in the article, and in all cases the evidence for a proposition is given.

Each article and each proposition are also identified by one or more index numbers in the left-hand margins. The key to this index code is contained on pages x - xv of this introduction. The index is basically organized into six categories: (1) Geographical Area and Country; (3) Economic Development; (4) Agricultural Development; (5) Social Change; (6) Educational Development; and (7) Political Development. (The absence of any No.2 is an indication of the preliminary nature of this work. We experimented with a topic under No.2, but when it proved to be not very useful, we dropped it. The number was simply skipped in order to avoid the work of renumbering all abstracts and propositions that had already been indexed when the decision was made to drop No.2). Each of these major topics is broken down into a number of sub-topics identified on pages x - xv.

The search system to be used in finding articles classified under a given index number is found on pages xvi - xxxv. Each index number is repeated on these pages, along with a number and letter identifying all the articles classified under any given index number. To find all the articles on a specific topic, one should first find the index number identifying that topic on pages x - xv and then turn to that index number on pages xvi - xxxv. Each article on that topic will be listed by number and letter after that index number. For example, if one is interested in finding all articles that deal with social-structural impediments to agricultural development, he would first turn to the general category "Agricultural Development" (No.4 on page xiii). Looking down the list of sub-topics, he would find 4.18 Impediments to Agricultural Development and 4.181 Social Structure. Next turning to page xxviii he would find 4.181 and a number and letter identifying all articles classified under this heading. On the upper right-hand corner of each page of the bibliography, he will find the numbers and letters of each periodical and article covered on that page which will facilitate his finding all those articles classified under 4.181. If he were further interested in all of the social-structural impediments to agricultural development in Pakistan, he could then turn to 1.02 Asia and 1.022 Pakistan. All articles listed under this heading, which were also listed under the 4.181 heading, would deal with social-structural impediments to agricultural development in Pakistan. To the degree that one's interests are reflected in the over 100 sub-topics listed in the index, he can very quickly find the abstracts of all articles relating to those interests.

A separate system using the same index numbers has been developed to facilitate the search for propositions independently of the search for abstracts, and this works in exactly the same way.

There are no articles listed under some of the index numbers in the search system. This occurs because many more articles were indexed than were included in this bibliography, the elimination of titles sometimes removed all articles classified under a given topic from the bibliography.

INDEX CODES

Major Categories

1. Geographic
    - 1.01 Africa
    - 1.02 Asia
    - 1.03 South America
    - 1.04 Central America and the Caribbean
    - 1.05 Oceania
    - 1.06 Europe and North America

3. Economics

4. Agriculture

5. Social Change

6. Education

7. Politics and Government

Secondary Categories

1. Geographic
    - 1.01 Africa
        - 1.011 Abyssinia
        - 1.012 Nigeria
        - 1.013 Libya
        - 1.014 Ghana
        - 1.015 Guinea
        - 1.016 Kenya
        - 1.017 Mali
        - 1.018 Tshad Republic
        - 1.019 Ivory Coast
        - 1.120 South Africa

1.01 Africa (continued)

- 1.121 Uganda
- 1.122 Tanganyika (Tanzania)
- 1.123 Zanzibar
- 1.124 Malawi
- 1.125 Gambia
- 1.126 Basutoland (Republic of Lesotho)
- 1.127 Congo
- 1.128 Sudan
- 1.129 Tunisia
- 1.130 Rhodesia
- 1.131 Morocco
- 1.132 Cameroons
- 1.133 Egypt
- 1.134 Liberia
- 1.135 Mauritania
- 1.136 Somalia
- 1.137 Algeria
- 1.138 Sierra Leone
- 1.139 Republic of Upper Volta

1.02 Asia

- 1.021 India
- 1.022 Pakistan
- 1.023 Indonesia
- 1.024 West New Guinea
- 1.025 Japan
- 1.026 Phillipines
- 1.027 Thailand
- 1.028 Taiwan
- 1.029 Malayan Republic
- 1.230 China
- 1.231 Viet Nam
- 1.232 Ceylon
- 1.233 Turkey
- 1.234 Israel
- 1.235 Iran
- 1.236 Korea
- 1.237 Burma
- 1.238 Saudi Arabia
- 1.239 Lebanon
- 1.240 Syria
- 1.241 Jordan
- 1.242 Laos
- 1.243 Nepal

- 1.02 Asia (continued)
    - 1.244 Iraq
    - 1.245 Afghanistan
    - 1.03 South America
        - 1.031 Peru
        - 1.032 Brazil
        - 1.033 Argentina
        - 1.034 Colombia
        - 1.035 Chile
        - 1.036 British Honduras
        - 1.037 British Guinea
        - 1.038 Venezuela
        - 1.039 Surinam
        - 1.340 Bolivia
        - 1.341 Ecuador
        - 1.342 Uruguay
    - 1.04 Central America and the Caribbean
        - 1.041 Jamaica
        - 1.042 Haiti
        - 1.043 Mexico
        - 1.044 Puerto Rico
        - 1.045 Trinidad
        - 1.046 Guatemala
        - 1.047 British West Indies
        - 1.048 Tobago
        - 1.049 Panama
        - 1.450 Costa Rica
        - 1.451 El Salvador
    - 1.05 Oceania
        - 1.051 New Guinea
        - 1.052 Fiji
        - 1.053 Truk
        - 1.055 Ponape
        - 1.056 Samoa
    - 1.06 Europe and North America

- 3. Economics
    - 3.01 Theory and models
    - 3.02 Economic growth
    - 3.03 Capital accumulation (including investment and savings)
    - 3.04 Public finance
    - 3.05 Income
    - 3.06 Credit
    - 3.07 Planning
    - 3.08 Market structure

3. Economics (continued)

- 3.09 Prices and pricing
- 3.10 Labour (including labour relations, employment, unemployment, underemployment)
- 3.11 Technology (including innovation and diffusion)
- 3.12 Resource base
- 3.13 Production
- 3.14 Entrepreneurs
- 3.15 Attitudes (including motivation)
- 3.16 Foreign trade (tariffs, balance of payments)
- 3.17 Foreign assistance
  - 3.171 Loans
  - 3.172 Grants
  - 3.173 Technical assistance
  - 3.174 Military assistance
  - 3.175 Private assistance
- 3.18 International Economics
- 3.19 Social overhead

4. Agriculture

- 4.01 General theory
- 4.02 Research and development
- 4.03 Investment and savings
- 4.04 Taxation
- 4.05 Credit
- 4.06 Planning
- 4.07 Market Structure (including exchange patterns)
- 4.08 Prices and pricing
- 4.09 Manpower
- 4.10 Technology
- 4.11 Production
- 4.12 Resource base
- 4.13 Processing
- 4.14 Land tenure (land reform, ownership, reorganization)
- 4.15 Land settlement
- 4.16 Farm management
- 4.17 Social organization
- 4.18 Impediments to agricultural development
  - 4.181 Social structure
  - 4.182 Cultural
  - 4.183 Attitudinal
  - 4.184 Ecological
- 4.19 Agricultural universities

5. Social Change
  - 5.01 General theory
  - 5.02 Exogamous change
    - 5.021 Central government
    - 5.022 Foreign government
    - 5.023 Foreign private
  - 5.03 Endogamous
  - 5.04 Planned change
  - 5.05 Spontaneous change
  - 5.06 Social structure
    - 5.061 Kinship
    - 5.062 Stratification and mobility
    - 5.063 Formal organization
    - 5.064 Minorities
  - 5.07 Population
  - 5.08 Community development
  - 5.09 Urbanization
  - 5.10 Migration
  - 5.11 Impediments to change
    - 5.111 Social structure
    - 5.112 Cultural
    - 5.113 Attitudinal
    - 5.114 Ecological
  - 5.12 Promoter of change
    - 5.121 Social structure
    - 5.122 Cultural
    - 5.123 Attitudinal
    - 5.124 Ecological
  - 5.13 Social conflict (including role conflict)
  - 5.14 Acculturation
  - 5.15 Communication
  - 5.16 Religion
  - 5.17 Public Health
  - 5.18 Institutional building

6. Education
  - 6.01 Theory
  - 6.02 Methods
  - 6.03 Research
  - 6.04 Primary
  - 6.05 Secondary
  - 6.06 Higher
  - 6.07 Vocational

6. Education (continued)

- 6.08 Agricultural
  - 6.081 School
  - 6.082 Extension
- 6.09 Adult (fundamental)
- 6.10 Education through mass media
- 6.11 Ministries of education
- 6.12 Educational change
- 6.13 Educational finance
- 6.14 Educational planning
- 6.15 Private education
- 6.16 Human resource investment

7. Politics and Government

- 7.01 Theory and research
- 7.02 Executives and political leadership
- 7.03 Administration
- 7.04 Legislatures
- 7.05 Judiciary and law
- 7.06 Military
- 7.07 Political parties
- 7.08 Interest groups
- 7.09 Voting behavior, participation
- 7.10 Political recruitment
- 7.11 Political modernization
- 7.12 Political conflict, instability, insurrections (violent outbreaks, riots)
- 7.13 Political socialization, integration, values
- 7.14 Politics of planning
- 7.15 Foreign relations
- 7.16 Political ideologies (including nationalism)
- 7.17 Corruption
- 7.18 Central government
- 7.19 Provincial government
- 7.20 Municipal
- 7.21 Village
- 7.22 Tribal
- 7.23 Government policy
  - 7.231 Economic
  - 7.232 Social
  - 7.233 Political development

SEARCH SYSTEM

ABSTRACTS

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126A, 126B, 126C, 126D, 128B, 128C, 131A, 131B, 140D, 144E,
148B, 148C, 151A, 154C, 154D, 154E, 156D, 156J, 157A, 157B,
157C, 157E, 157F, 157G, 157H, 157I, 157J, 157K, 157L, 157N,
157O, 157P, 157Q, 157R, 157S, 157U, 157W, 157X, 157AA,
157BB, 157CC, 157DD, 158A, 158O, 158Q, 169A, 172A, 177A,
177B, 177C, 177D, 177E, 177F, 177G, 177I, 177J, 177K, 177M,
177N, 177O, 177Q, 183C, 186A, 186C, 186D, 191H, 195B, 197A,
198A, 198B, 198C, 198E, 198F, 198H, 198I, 198K, 198L, 201A,
203P, 204D, 215A, 218H, 219B, 220D, 220G, 222A, 232A, 235B.

3.02 : 10A, 15C, 16D, 16G, 16H, 16J, 18A, 18E, 18G, 18I, 19A, 23A,
23G, 37B, 37E, 39B, 44D, 49B, 49C, 49G, 62D, 62E, 70A, 70C,
70D, 71F, 71G, 77A, 77S, 77W, 77X, 77Z, 77AA, 77DD, 79A,
79D, 79E, 79H, 79J, 79K, 82D, 83A, 83B, 83C, 83D, 83E, 83F,
85A, 85B, 89D, 105C, 105RR, 105FFF, 105HHH, 105LLL, 106B,
111A, 111E, 111G, 123P, 126A, 126B, 126C, 126D, 134B, 134F,
134I, 134K, 134L, 134N, 134O, 134R, 140D, 142A, 157E, 157G,
157H, 157J, 157K, 157L, 157O, 157Q, 157R, 157S, 157U, 157W,
157X, 157Z, 157AA, 157BB, 157CC, 157DD, 158A, 158E, 158G,

3.02 : (continued)

158K, 158M, 158O, 158Q, 162B, 164A, 165B, 165C, 167A, 177B, 177D, 177E, 177F, 177G, 177J, 177M, 177O, 177P, 177Q, 184A, 198A, 198B, 198C, 198E, 198F, 198H, 198I, 198K, 198L, 198M, 198N, 204G, 207D, 210A, 210C, 212A, 215A, 220A, 220C, 220F.

3.03 : 15B, 16G, 18A, 18D, 44A, 48A, 49B, 49C, 70C, 71C, 71D, 74A, 77I, 77P, 79D, 80C, 83A, 83E, 105LLL, 111A, 111F, 111H, 126C, 126D, 128B, 131A, 157F, 157K, 157L, 157P, 157CC, 157DD, 157EE, 177B, 177G, 177M, 177Q, 198C, 198K, 198L, 198M, 220C, 225A, 229B, 235A.

3.04 : 71E, 157T, 157CC, 164B, 165L, 177K, 177N, 198H, 204D.

3.05 : 16B, 16E, 18C, 18D, 114GG, 126D, 177D, 177K, 198I, 198N, 204D, 204F, 212B.

3.06 : 49K, 77EE, 177C, 177D, 198G, 198N, 198O, 235C.

3.07 : 17A, 18G, 35E, 47A, 49A, 49L, 71F, 71H, 74A, 76C, 76E, 77HH, 77PP, 79B, 79K, 103A, 105VV, 110B, 118C, 124B, 125F, 134D, 134G, 152C, 157Z, 158K, 165H, 165J, 165L, 167A, 177D, 177J, 177O, 177P, 179C, 189A, 198B, 204C, 219C, 235B.

3.08 : 15A, 18F, 39A, 42B, 49A, 49N, 71A, 71B, 74A, 77L, 77NN, 79C, 105DD, 105HH, 105TTT, 123N, 134J, 144CC, 148A, 148B, 148C, 157N, 158O, 177J, 195A, 204L.

3.09 : 70C, 77U, 77AA, 77EE, 85C, 111B, 157N, 165B, 177P.

3.10 : 14Q, 16B, 16G, 18B, 37I, 42B, 44A, 49A, 49B, 62A, 74A, 77UU, 105B, 105KK, 105XX, 105SSS, 111E, 111F, 120C, 120D, 120E, 126D, 131C, 131D, 131E, 134K, 134L, 144P, 154G, 157EE, 177M, 183C, 191B, 191C, 198H, 198K, 204F, 204G, 206B.

3.11 : 14P, 18D, 18F, 21A, 26A, 44C, 44D, 55C, 77CC, 79G, 83B, 105E, 105Y, 105EE, 105SS, 105DD, 105000, 105QQQ, 126D, 134K, 157J, 157BB, 163F, 165H, 177B, 177G, 177I, 180A, 198C, 198J, 210D, 212A, 218D.

3.12 : 27A, 37E, 44C, 74A, 77U, 77V, 77VV, 77WW, 77YY, 95D, 157CC, 177I, 198C.

3.13 : 16D, 16I, 74A, 79D, 83A, 83D, 95J, 105KK, 126C, 156G, 175A, 175B, 177I, 198C, 198E, 198O, 204B, 204F.

3.14 : 18A, 18J, 21A, 42A, 77P, 105D, 105TTT, 134H, 158Q, 198M, 214C, 218A, 220F.

3.15 : 11L, 18J, 39A, 42B, 49D, 49K, 69A, 82S, 91A, 91B, 120B, 123C, 154C, 154D, 157C, 177H, 177J, 195B, 206A, 210A, 210B.

3.16 : 18C, 18F, 35A, 48B, 49G, 55A, 71E, 74A, 76D, 77M, 79F, 85A, 85C, 105LLL, 110A, 124A, 125G, 140A, 146B, 157A, 157C, 157F, 157K, 157CC, 158N, 177A, 177J, 177N, 177P, 181A, 235A.

3.17 : 11K, 18C, 37H, 44B, 70A, 79B, 79F, 79G, 79H, 95K, 105JJ, 105QQ, 125C, 128B, 158H, 193A, 201A, 201D, 207C, 207D.

3.171: 11C, 96G, 96H, 144O, 163F, 177A.

3.172: 11C, 71B, 144N, 144Y, 144FF.

3.173: 5A, 7B, 11C, 23C, 23D, 23F, 23E, 77RR, 96A, 105I, 105P, 105NN, 105SS, 105UU, 105VV, 132A, 144A, 144B, 144N, 144O, 144R, 144AA, 157Q, 165A, 165J, 169A, 178A, 181A, 198P, 199A, 203W, 204E, 207C, 212A, 218H, 231B.

3.174:

3.175: 77U, 105GGG, 155A, 165C.

3.18 : 16C, 48B, 71G, 76A, 77S, 85C, 177F.

3.19 : 16K, 16L, 49A, 49E, 55C, 77II, 114II, 126A, 134G, 151B,
157D, 157H, 157P, 157EE, 177K, 201C, 227I.

4.01 : 8B, 10A, 10B, 11Q, 14I, 16A, 16J, 68A, 72A, 76C, 76D,
77I, 77XX, 94A, 94B, 94C, 94D, 96D, 96E, 96F, 97D, 106A,
106B, 112A, 113D, 114I, 114BB, 114OO, 125E, 125G, 128C,
131B, 138D, 144E, 144Z, 151A, 153B, 156D, 156L, 170B,
172A, 173C, 177E, 177L, 177M, 177Q, 182A, 197A, 221A, 222A,
224B, 227E.

4.02 : 7A, 11G, 11I, 14O, 16M, 34H, 82C, 82Q, 114JJ, 114KK, 114LL,
114OO, 117B, 128A, 128C, 138A, 139A, 144I, 144L, 144U,
158F, 158J, 176A, 177H, 199A, 203F, 203N, 204I, 226A, 227A.

4.03: 10B, 11C, 14K, 14L, 14M, 14N, 35A, 48A, 75B, 76B, 76D, 77C,
77I, 77J, 77R, 77BB, 79I, 80F, 90B, 92A, 141A, 141C, 144J,
144P, 144S, 144GG, 151E, 177M, 177Q, 205A, 227A, 227I, 230A.

4.04: 33A, 34D, 79C, 114GG, 140A, 158A, 209A.

4.05: 8A, 12A, 3A, 14C, 41A, 48A, 68A, 77C, 77O, 82B, 82H, 96H,
111D, 114F, 114G, 114J, 114L, 114N, 114R, 114S, 114T, 114U,
114W, 114X, 141C, 144F, 158L, 158M, 158N, 159B, 165A, 177C,
191L, 201B, 203M, 217E, 221C.

4.06: 3A, 6A, 11E, 11H, 11M, 11N, 11P, 11S, 16A, 18B, 34F, 48B,
49L, 68A, 74C, 75B, 76C, 77G, 80D, 82B, 82P, 90B, 93A, 94A,
94C, 96A, 96E, 106A, 110B, 112A, 113B, 114A, 114B, 114F,
114P, 114V, 114BB, 114CC, 114EE, 114JJ, 114KK, 114LL, 114QQ, 122A,
122B, 122C, 124B, 125D, 136A, 136D, 136N, 138B, 144H, 147B,
155A, 156L, 158B, 162A, 165A, 165H, 183A, 204A, 220B, 220E,
229D, 230A.

4.07 : 4A, 32C, 77C, 77L, 77GG, 79I, 80B, 80D, 82J, 82M, 82T, 89B, 105N, 105DD, 114B, 114E, 114F, 114V, 125D, 136S, 144P, 144S, 144U, 144CC, 148A, 148C, 158M, 170D, 171A, 172B, 200A, 210B.

4.08 : 4A, 34B, 77C, 77GG, 77PP, 79L, 82T, 111G, 114D, 114F, 144V, 114Y, 136N, 165H, 172B, 177H.

4.09 : 6B, 7B, 10B, 16A, 35A, 35G, 44A, 44C, 57A, 57B, 70B, 76B, 77K, 77U, 82I, 82N, 82Q, 90A, 91B, 96F, 114P, 114II, 144J, 144P, 153A, 171A, 183C, 204M, 205A, 208C, 219A, 227A, 227I, 230A.

4.10 : 3D, 7B, 10B, 11L, 14A, 14G, 18H, 19C, 23D, 26A, 43B, 49L, 57A, 57B, 77U, 80F, 82M, 82R, 90A, 91A, 91B, 92A, 96F, 99A, 100D, 101A, 101B, 102A, 105NNN, 114O, 114BB, 114DD, 114HH, 114MM, 141A, 144G, 146C, 163B, 163C, 165H, 173A, 200A, 203D, 203I, 203T, 203V, 204N, 205A, 210A, 210D, 229E, 234A.

4.11 : 2A, 10B, 11D, 11F, 11G, 11I, 11J, 11N, 11S, 12A, 14D, 14H, 14K, 14N, 18B, 18C, 18F, 23D, 34B, 34F, 34G, 37D, 49L, 56A, 61C, 76B, 77C, 77T, 77X, 77GG, 77OO, 78A, 79I, 79L, 82B, 82C, 82G, 82H, 82I, 82N, 88A, 90B, 91A, 96J, 96K, 97A, 99B, 101B, 105L, 105UUU, 112B, 113A, 113C, 114A, 114D, 114E, 114G, 114J, 114M, 114N, 114P, 114BB, 114EE, 114HH, 114PP, 122A, 122B, 122C, 115I, 123P, 136A, 144U, 144Z, 144EE, 144JJ, 146B, 151A, 151E, 153A, 156D, 158J, 170A, 173B, 173C, 173D, 179C, 183A, 209A, 226A, 229A, 229B, 235A.

4.12 : 11A, 11N, 12A, 22A, 24A, 49L, 57A, 60B, 76B, 80F, 82G, 99A, 101A, 101B, 102A, 108A, 113B, 114A, 114E, 114J, 114M, 114FF, 114HH, 121B, 134C, 137A, 144J, 144Z, 165E, 172A, 173C, 183A, 200A, 204N, 211A, 213A, 219A, 229B.

4.13 : 71B, 77T, 171A.

4.14 : 6C, 8C, 11A, 11B, 11O, 11R, 12A, 18B, 18H, 19F, 22B, 22C, 24B, 34B, 34E, 34G, 35F, 35I, 37D, 55E, 64B, 64E, 66B, 75B, 77C, 77H, 77J, 77M, 77O, 77JJ, 81A, 88A, 95C, 95D, 96F, 96I, 105L, 105N, 105T, 105Z, 105EE, 105JJJ, 105RRR, 111I, 114H, 114L, 114M, 114P, 114Q, 114Y, 114Z, 114AA, 105GGG, 114GG, 114NN, 114PP, 114RR, 118D, 121A, 121B, 125G, 131F, 136D, 136J, 136N, 136R, 136T, 137A, 144B, 144HH, 144II, 144KK, 147L, 147M, 149A, 158B, 158D, 158G, 158H, 158I, 158J, 158L, 158P, 160A, 162B, 165E, 165H, 168A, 170C, 173C, 177L, 186F, 192A, 200A, 202A, 203L, 203Q, 203U, 203X, 209A, 214A, 217C, 2P7F, 219A, 226A, 227B, 227D, 227G, 227I, 229E, 230A, 233A.

4.15 : 3B, 3C, 6D, 6E, 32A, 58A, 58B, 75A, 82I, 93A, 105V, 105PPP, 114M, 114P, 114Q, 121B, 158C, 160A, 173A, 173C, 203L, 203X, 227B, 227C, 227F, 229E, 231D.

4.16 : 14H, 19F, 28C, 32C, 34G, 77C, 77JJ, 82I, 82N, 82O, 82R, 96F, 106C, 111D, 114B, 114P, 114Q, 114Y, 114FF, 114MM, 136A, 136S, 144V, 144JJ, 153A, 156L, 158L, 162A, 168A, 173C, 183A, 194A, 203L, 203U, 217C, 227B.

4.17 : 4A, 9A, 12A, 13A, 14C, 14J, 14K, 18B, 19F, 28C, 30A, 32A, 32B, 40A, 41A, 60A, 61B, 61C, 63A, 68A, 69A, 74B, 77OO, 82H, 82O, 82R, 87B, 91B, 100A, 104A, 104C, 105PPP, 107A, 111D, 114F, 114N, 114O, 114Q, 114R, 114S, 114T, 114U, 114W, 114X, 121A, 121B, 125G, 133C, 138B, 138C, 141A, 141C, 144K, 146C, 147L, 150A, 152A, 159A, 159B, 162A, 173C, 177L, 182A, 183A, 186E, 196B, 202A, 202B, 202C, 203L, 203X, 205A, 210D, 214B, 217C, 217E, 221D, 226A, 227B, 229C.

4.18 : 14A, 14G, 56A, 57A, 69A, 80A, 96F, 108A, 114C, 114HH, 114II, 117B, 125B, 144K, 144M, 144N, 144S, 144KK, 159A, 172A, 198D, 203D, 203I, 203X, 204N.

4.181: 28C, 34C, 77C, 77G, 77H, 136T, 156C.

4.182: 19D, 77C, 77G.

4.183: 77C, 136R, 203O, 231B.

4.184: 77C, 223A.

4.19 : 14F, 23F.

5.00 : 64F.

5.01 : 1E, 15A, 18I, 20F, 42A, 42C, 42E, 49I, 49J, 55C, 64A, 64D, 64F, 77D, 77E, 77P, 77MM, 77SS, 95H, 105Y, 105AA, 105WW, 105CCC, 105EEE, 105HHH, 105JJJ, 105QQQ, 119B, 134A, 154C, 154D, 157V, 186A, 186C, 198I, 203K, 204H, 208A, 208B, 217A, 217B, 217G, 218C, 232A.

5.02 : 77MM, 105A, 105II, 120C, 129B, 191G, 191K, 198I, 208B, 105S.

5.021: 89A, 105A, 105M, 105V, 105AA, 105GG, 105BBB, 134R, 210D.

5.022: 105SS, 207C, 207E, 217B.

5.023: 18J, 27B, 204B.

5.03 : 82D, 105W, 208B.

5.04 : 74D, 105Y, 105VV, 105DDD, 105JJJ, 119D, 165F, 203K, 208A, 214B, 216A, 217D.

5.05 : 95I, 203O, 207B, 210A, 210D.

5.06 : 15A, 18G, 23A, 23B, 27A, 28A, 28C, 29B, 36A, 36C, 62C, 62D, 64C, 69A, 23E, 77BB, 82G, 105H, 105M, 105T, 105Y, 105BB, 105CC, 105DD, 105KK, 105WW, 105FFF, 105GGG, 105HHH, 105RRR, 119B, 123B, 123N, 129B, 133B, 134B, 134C, 134F, 154F, 165D, 165F, 165M, 165N, 203A, 203J, 208B, 214D, 216A.

5.061: 15B, 23G, 49M, 105FF, 105DDD, 105SSS, 134J, 218I.

5.062: 15C, 19C, 19E, 20K, 21A, 29A, 32B, 42D, 49H, 55C, 55F, 55G, 77L, 80E, 82A, 82F, 82L, 89B, 105C, 105U, 105HH, 134J, 134L, 156C, 191F, 191L, 203B, 204H, 206B, 210C, 214A.

5.063: 77U, 77Y, 154B, 207B.

5.064: 28B, 36A, 49H, 49I, 55A, 77YY, 77ZZ, 80E, 89C, 95Q, 105B, 1050, 105R, 123K, 123L, 134R, 157Y, 166A, 188B, 204H, 208C.

5.07 : 11B, 11P, 14D, 14H, 16F, 18E, 18H, 44C, 55C, 55F, 62D, 77J, 77M, 77S, 77W, 77KK, 77MM, 92A, 96K, 101B, 105C, 105N, 105EE, 141B, 158K, 167A, 183B, 186D, 191A, 191B, 191C, 191D, 191G, 191I, 191J, 191K, 198I, 198N, 203G, 215A, 217E, 219A, 220G.

5.08 : 11B, 11L, 29A, 34A, 35D, 59A, 61B, 61C, 66A, 82E, 82K, 82L, 82P, 87A, 96C, 98C, 104B, 105T, 105BB, 105GG, 105MM, 10500, 105PP, 105QQ, 105UU, 105WW, 107A, 114C, 118G, 119C, 123H, 133A, 133C, 134D, 134E, 136K, 136Q, 138C, 141C, 147F, 147H, 150A, 150B, 152A, 150C, 156B, 156G, 156H, 156I, 156J, 156K, 158F, 163A, 165I, 179B, 180B, 180C, 185B, 186B, 196A, 202A, 203E, 203F, 203H, 203N, 208A, 214B, 214C, 216A, 217F.

5.09 : 18E, 19A, 20F, 28A, 77LL, 77TT, 95D, 105C, 105K, 105Q, 105S, 105YY, 105AAA, 105HHH, 129A, 158P, 188A, 207A, 207B, 207E, 210C, 212C, 215A, 216B.

5.10 : 3B, 6C, 22A, 32B, 42D, 61D, 77E, 77LL, 96C, 105G, 105N, 105V, 105MM, 105XX, 177M, 191F, 198N, 203T, 204G, 216B, 217F.

5.11 : 14E, 14P, 18F, 34A, 49J, 66A, 76E, 86A, 95F, 105D, 114C, 123A, 131C, 144Q, 145A, 150B, 154G, 203W, 212B.

5.111: 26A, 77TT, 82M, 134A, 156C, 210C, 216A, 217D, 217F, 218I, 125A.

5.112: 18C, 64B, 77BB, 77YY, 82D, 82M, 84A, 105LL, 105BBB, 105FFF, 105UUU, 134A, 154A, 191J, 210A, 212A.

5.113: 15B, 20D, 26A, 77WW, 80A.

5.114:

5.12 : 23B, 34A, 66A, 76E, 95F, 105II, 105EEE, 114C, 125B, 141A, 144Q, 191H, 203H, 212B.

5.13 : 34C, 77R, 154B, 207E, 212C, 216B.

5.121: 15B, 77D, 77MM, 82E, 105SS, 134C, 216A, 218B.

5.122: 18J, 77D, 77MM, 105C, 105H, 105J, 105U, 105EE, 105JJ, 105CCC, 105MMM, 105NNN, 154A, 208D, 210B, 214D.

5.123: 77D, 77E, 77V, 134L, 180A, 214D.

5.124: 1C, 210D.

5.14 : 19E, 27B, 28B, 54A, 55D, 77ZZ, 84A, 89A, 95E, 105A, 105J, 105O, 105P, 105S, 105W, 105JJ, 105TT, 105CCC, 105JJJ, 105OOO, 134J, 165D, 165M, 166A, 169B, 204H, 207C, 207E, 208C, 210A, 210B, 210C, 210D, 218C, 218G, 218J, 218K.

5.15 : 19C, 20F, 52A, 77E, 77Q, 77U, 77CC, 105JJ, 113D, 161B, 195A, 203O.

5.16 : 18C, 20J, 23B, 44B, 49D, 55F, 77L, 77U, 77YY, 77ZZ, 89C, 95U, 105A, 105S, 105U, 105SS, 123I, 207A, 207D, 218F.

5.17 : 105H, 105EE, 105DDD, 105MMM, 142A, 167A, 218K.

5.18 : 28C, 77SS, 105J, 217B.

5.172: 179A

5.173: 179A

6.01 : 49E, 74D, 77A, 77E, 112C, 125H, 125I, 130A, 131E, 134I, 151D, 157Q, 157Y, 203P, 218E, 220A.

6.02 : 35C, 143A, 203P, 213A.

6.03 : 115H, 143A, 184A, 187A.

6.04 : 2A, 14B, 19B, 24A, 44A, 82J, 105TT, 109C, 127A, 134P, 135A, 144X, 146C, 156E, 174A, 180C, 184B, 203F, 203S, 225A, 232A.

6.05 : 2A, 14B, 19B, 22D, 42D, 44A, 105TT, 109C, 109J, 115E, 127A, 134P, 144D, 144X, 146A, 146C, 156E, 203F, 203P, 203S, 220A, 225A, 232A.

6.06 : 2A, 14B, 20D, 44A, 65A, 109A, 109B, 109D, 109E, 109F, 109G, 109H, 109I, 109J, 109K, 109L, 109M, 109N, 109O, 109P, 109Q, 115B, 115C, 115D, 123B, 115I, 118B, 134P, 144C, 144I, 144R, 144U, 144BB, 144DD, 145A, 147J, 154F, 157Y, 165G, 169A, 169B, 179D, 187A, 188B, 203F, 203P, 220A, 222B, 225A, 232A.

6.07 : 14B, 62G, 65A, 82J, 123B, 134N, 134P, 174A.

6.08 : 3C, 3D, 3E, 14B, 18H, 22D, 23C, 23E, 43B, 44A, 57A, 57B, 60B, 63A, 82J, 104D, 109A, 109D, 109E, 109F, 109G, 109H, 109I, 109J, 109K, 109L, 109M, 109N, 109O, 109P, 109Q, 114F, 114DD, 114II, 115A, 115B, 115C, 115D, 115E, 115F, 115G, 115I, 116C, 116D, 117A, 142A, 144D, 144R, 144T, 144U, 144BB, 144DD, 150C, 174A, 178B, 180B, 187A, 203F, 203P, 203R, 203S, 213A, 222B, 222C, 227I, 228A, 229C, 231B, 231C.

6.081: 70B, 98E, 109B.

6.082: 14F, 23F, 43A, 61A, 94E, 96E, 114L, 115J, 116A, 116B, 116D, 156E, 156N, 158J, 173A, 173B, 173C, 178A, 221B, 226A, 227H, 231A.

6.09 : 20F, 62A, 98A, 98C, 98B, 98D, 98F, 105UU, 134N, 204M.

6.10 : 19C, 43B, 77E, 77Q, 213A.

6.11 : 98A, 134M.

6.12 : 82A, 105EE, 10500, 105KKK, 105LLL.

6.13 : 77A, 103A, 126A, 134Q, 157D, 225A.

6.14 : 2A, 53A, 62C, 62F, 77A, 103A, 115G, 123P, 125F, 125H, 127A, 130A, 131E, 133A, 134M, 134O, 134Q, 135A, 143A, 146A, 146C, 157D, 203E, 204J, 212B, 220A, 225A, 232A.

6.15 : 120B.

6.16 : 14B, 16D, 16L, 19C, 46B, 49A, 49E, 55C, 62B, 62D, 62E, 67A, 77II, 79J, 85B, 105D, 105O, 105LL, 10500, 105PP, 105WW, 105KKK, 126A, 131A, 134I, 134K, 142A, 144X, 151B, 151C, 151D, 201C, 204J, 214B.

7.01 : 20D, 20G, 20L, 64F, 77SS, 89D, 95P, 105X, 204K, 212B.

7.02 : 19B, 20I, 35H, 36C, 37F, 38A, 38D, 55A, 77R, 77FF, 87B, 95I, 95N, 95P, 95T, 105K, 105Z, 105BB, 113E, 123E, 123I, 165D, 190A, 214A.

7.03 : 1A, 1B, 1C, 1D, 1E, 1F, 26A, 38B, 51A, 51B, 55E, 55G, 87C, 95T, 105D, 105F, 105X, 105VV, 114P, 118G, 123E, 118A, 118B, 118C, 118D, 134D, 134E, 136B, 136C, 136E, 136G, 136H, 136L, 136M, 136O, 141D, 141E, 147C, 147H, 147I, 147J, 147K, 152B, 156A, 157Z, 157DD, 180B, 198B.

7.04 : 19A, 37F, 95A, 95P, 120D.

7.05 : 37F, 95A, 217B.

7.06 : 38A, 123I, 179A, 203R.

7.07 : 20A, 20E, 20H, 20I, 37C, 38A, 55A, 95S, 105Q, 118F, 210B.

7.08 : 16H, 37I, 105B, 105JJJ, 120C, 120D, 120E, 115H, 233B.

7.09 : 20K, 37C, 82F, 95A, 105III, 190B, 210D.

7.10 : 105F.

7.11 : 15C, 20H, 31A, 38A, 38B, 64F, 77FF, 77SS, 89D, 95B, 95C, 95F, 95G, 95J, 95L, 95M, 95N, 95O, 95P, 95R, 95T, 95U, 105B, 105G, 105S, 123D, 123E, 123F, 123G, 123O, 157M, 163D, 165D, 165M, 192A, 204K, 212C, 219B.

7.12 : 20B, 20C, 20D, 20F, 36A, 38D, 95C, 95G, 95J, 95Q, 96F, 123F, 123J, 123L, 136K, 165D, 219A.

7.13 : 20K, 55G, 82O, 105K, 105R, 105III, 120B, 141E, 171B, 210D.

7.14 : 18J, 77FF, 79K, 105G, 118E, 177O, 189A, 198B, 198D.

7.15 : 18G, 20C, 37G, 38C, 95M, 105G, 105S, 123K, 140B, 158H, 179A, 212B.

7.16 : 16H, 20J, 31A, 36B, 37A, 38C, 95B, 95G, 95S, 105D, 105R, 136P, 157M, 158Q, 198D, 210B, 233A, 233B.

7.17 :

7.18 : 17B, 20B, 25A, 82P, 134D, 147D, 147E, 147I.

7.19 : 25A, 29B, 95A, 136C, 136E, 136F, 136G, 136I, 141D,
147C, 147D, 147G, 147K, 147N, 156M, 165K.

7.20 : 25A, 136O, 185A, 216B.

7.21 : 25A, 29A, 33B, 35B, 35C, 35D, 35H, 82A, 82F, 82K,
82T, 87A, 87C, 87D, 90B, 105R, 105Z, 105CC, 105DD,
105EE, 105VV, 105III, 113E, 118E, 133B, 136C, 136K,
136M, 136Q, 147A, 147C, 147D, 147E, 147G, 147H,
147I, 147N, 152A, 156A, 156B, 156F, 156G, 156H,
156I, 156J, 156M, 158F, 163A, 163E, 165I, 165K,
171B, 179B, 179E, 185A, 185B, 185C, 185D, 186B,
190B, 196A, 203J, 210B, 214A.

7.22 : 23B, 26A, 29B, 38D, 73A, 105ZZ, 123O, 136F, 136P,
163B, 163F, 165L, 216A, 218B, 218F.

7.23 : 82B, 105T, 105BB, 11E, 136J, 147B, 147I, 216B,
219C, 220D, 235A, 14K.

7.231: 1A, 1D, 8B, 14M, 15C, 16M, 17A, 18F, 18J, 23A,
28A, 34B, 37B, 44A, 49M, 55G, 68A, 71C, 76E, 77H,
105BBB, 110B, 123A, 123C, 118A, 118C, 118D, 124V,
144GG, 146B, 156L, 157Z, 157BB, 157DD, 158F, 158L,
159B, 165H, 165J, 177K, 177N, 177O, 177P, 179F,
183A, 189A, 198H, 202A.

7.232: 19A, 44A, 49M, 55E, 73A, 75A, 76E, 87C, 105UU, 105YY,
133B, 141E, 156H, 177K, 179E, 203E, 218G, 220H.

7.233: 105GG, 214C.

PROPOSITIONS

1.01 : 23B(1), 23B(2), 136T(1).

1.011:

1.012: 77C(1), 77C(2), 77C(3), 79C(1), 105BBB(1).

1.013:

1.014: 120D(1).

1.015:

1.016: 218A(1), 218A(2), 218A(3), 218A(4), 218A(5), 218A(6), 218A(7).

1.017: 218E(1)

1.018:

1.019: 218I(1)

1.120:

1.121:

1.122: 28C(1), 28C(2), 28C(3), 28C(4), 28C(5), 28C(6), 105XX(2), 105XX(3), 105XX(4), 105XX(5), 105XX(6).

1.123:

1.124: 77LL(1).

1.125:

1.126:

1.127: 20C(1), 20C(2), 20C(3).

1.128: 105A(1), 224B(1).

1.129:

1.130: 105XX(2), 105XX(3), 105XX(4), 105XX(5), 105XX(6).

1.131: 20E(1), 20E(2).

1.132:

1.133:

1.134:

1.135:

1.136:

1.137:

1.138:

1.139:

1.020: 77TT(1), 77TT(2), 77TT(3), 77TT(4), 77TT(5), 77TT(6), 77TT(7), 77TT(8), 77UU(1), 77UU(2), 77UU(3), 105SS(1), 105SS(2), 105FFF(1), 105FFF(2), 105FFF(3), 105FFF(4), 105FFF(5), 105FFF(6), 105FFF(7), 105FFF(8), 105FFF(9), 105FFF(10), 145A(1), 145A(2), 145A(3).

1.021: 16E(1), 32B(1), 35C(1), 37H(1), 37I(1), 37I(2), 37I(3), 37I(4), 37I(5), 69A(1), 69A(2), 77L(1), 77Q(1), 82M(1), 89B(1), 103A(1), 105U(1), 105Y(1), 105Y(2), 105Y(3), 105Y(4), 105GG(1), 105GG(2), 105HH(1), 111B(1), 111H(1), 114C(1), 114C(2), 114II(1), 114II(2), 114II(3), 158F(1), 158F(3), 203C(1), 203I(1), 208A(1), 208A(2), 214D(1), 218G(1), 233B(1), 233B(2).

1.022: 77G(1), 105UU(1), 105UU(2), 180B(1), 180C(1), 217E(1), 217E(2).

1.023: 18F(1), 18F(2), 18J(1), 38A(1), 210B(3).

1.024: 210B(2).

1.025: 77P(1), 77GG(1), 77GG(2), 105CC(1), 105CC(2), 105CC(3), 203V(1).

1.026: 105DDD(1), 105DDD(2), 105DDD(3), 217C(1), 217C(2), 217C(3).

1.027: 218B(1).

1.028: 105Z(1), 105Z(2).

1.029: 37D(1), 80E(1), 80E(2).

1.230:

1.231:

1.232: 20K(1), 20K(2), 20K(3), 20K(4), 105R(1), 105R(2), 105R(3), 105R(4), 105R(5), 105R(6), 105R(7), 105R(8), 105R(9), 105S(1), 105S(2), 105S(3).

1.233:

1.234: 204E(1).

1.235:

1.236:

1.237:

1.238:

1.239:

1.240:

1.241: 98B(1), 105SS(1).

1.242: 105VV(1), 105VV(2).

1.243: 105BB(1)

1.244:

1.245:

1.030: 77P(1), 134H(1), 203P(1).

1.031: 105GGG(1), 105GGG(2), 203M(1).

1.032: 192A(1), 192A(2), 192A(3), 192A(4), 192A(5), 203O(1), 203S(1), 206A(1), 206A(2), 206A(3), 206A(4), 206A(5), 206A(6).

1.033:

1.034:

1.035:

1.036: 77E(1), 77E(2), 77E(3).

1.037:

1.038: 134A(1).

1.039:

1.340:

1.341:

1.342:

1.04 : 134H(1), 203P(1).

1.041: 42B(1), 42B(2), 42B(3), 42B(4), 42B(5), 204M(1), 204N(1), 204N(2), 204N(3).

1.042: 77XX(1).

1.043: 15C(1), 15C(2), 21A(1), 204G(1).

1.044: 16B(1).

1.045: 204H(1).

1.046: 15C(1), 15C(2).

1.047:

1.048:

1.049: 79L(1), 105NNN(1), 105NNN(2), 105NNN(3), 105NNN(4), 105NNN(5).

1.450:

1.451:

1.05 : 218C(1).

1.051: 37E(1), 80D(1).

1.052:

1.053: 15B(1), 15B(2), 15B(3).

1.054:

1.055:

1.056:

1.06 : 15A(2), 19C(1), 49F(1), 49J(1), 49K(1), 89C(1), 105VV(1), 105VV(2), 105CCC(1), 105LLL(1), 134P(1), 203D(1), 208D(1).

1.061:

3.01 : 16J(1), 39B(1), 39B(2), 39B(3), 49F(1), 53A(1), 72A(1), 177M(1), 177P(2), 198G(1), 207D(1), 207D(7), 208D(1), 210A(1), 210A(3).

3.02 : 15C(2), 16G(1), 16H(1), 16J(1), 16K(1), 27B(5), 37B(1), 37D(1), 64B(1), 77B(1), 77S(1), 79F(1), 80C(1), 89D(1), 105R(1), 105S(3), 105RR(2), 105FFF(4), 105HHH(1), 111A(1), 120B(1), 120B(2), 134B(1), 134Q(1), 158Q(2), 177P(2), 204G(1), 207D(2), 207D(3), 207D(5), 207D(6), 208B(2), 208B(3), 210A(2), 210A(3), 210B(1), 210C(1), 215A(1), 210A(1).

3.01 :

3.03 : 15B(1), 15B(2), 15B(3), 27B(4), 37B(2), 37H(1), 37H(2), 37H(4), 39B(2), 71B(1), 77P(4), 77R(3), 77R(4), 77R(8), 77TT(7), 111A(1), 111B(1), 111D(2), 111H(1), 177K(1), 177K(2), 177M(1), 198M(1), 206A(6), 207D(3), 208B(2).

3.04 : 27B(4), 27B(7), 37H(2), 207D(7).

3.05 : 16E(1), 20F(4), 79G(3), 80M(1), 105XX(1), 105XX(4), 105XX(6), 111H(1), 177K(1), 198I(1).

3.06 : 15A(2), 49K(1), 49M(1), 1980(1), 207D(6).

3.07 : 39B(1), 39B(2), 77FF(2), 233B(1).

3.08 : 15A(2), 23G(1), 77L(2), 77L(3), 77L(4), 77L(5), 77L(6), 77L(7), 77L(8), 77L(9), 77L(10), 79C(1), 79I(1), 218A(3), 233B(2).

3.09 : 77UU(2), 111B(1).

3.10 : 16B(1), 16G(1), 23G(2), 27B(6), 37I(1), 37I(2), 37I(3), 37I(4), 37I(5), 42B(1), 77UU(2), 77UU(3), 105RR(1), 105RR(2), 105XX(1), 105XX(2), 105XX(5), 105XX(6), 134K(1), 177L(1), 198M(2), 204G(1), 204J(1), 208B(3).

3.11 : 16B(1), 16L(1), 19C(1), 21A(1), 26A(1), 26A(2), 39B(3), 55C(1), 77CC(1), 77CC(2), 79G(1), 79G(3), 79H(1), 105Y(1), 105Y(2), 105Y(3), 105Y(4), 105Y(5), 105UU(1), 105CCC(1), 105DDD(1), 105NNN(1), 105NNN(2), 105NNN(3), 105NNN(4), 105NNN(5), 198I(1), 198J(1), 208B(4), 216A(2).

3.12 : 77VV(1), 77WW(1), 77YY(1).

3.13 : 105CC(1), 105CC(3), 1980(2), 204G(1), 204J(3), 208D(1), 233B(1), 233B(2).

3.14 : 26A(1), 79G(1), 80M(1), 134H(1), 158Q(1), 198I(1), 198M(1), 198M(2), 208A(2), 218A(1), 218A(2), 218A(3), 218A(4), 218A(6).

3.15 : 15B(1), 15B(3), 15C(2), 16K(1), 26A(2), 26A(3), 28A(1), 28C(5), 42B(1), 52B(3), 42B(5), 49B(1), 49K(1), 64B(1), 69A(1), 69A(2), 79H(1), 79I(1), 105SS(1), 105SS(2), 105FFF(4), 134H(1), 177C(1), 177L(2), 206A(1), 206A(2), 206A(3), 206A(4), 206A(5), 206A(6), 208B(2), 210A(1), 210B(1), 210B(3), 210C(1), 224B(1).

3.16 : 27B(8), 42B(4), 44C(2), 77M(1), 77M(2), 77M(3), 77M(4), 77M(5), 77M(6), 77M(7), 77M(8), 207D(3), 207D(4), 217B(1).

3.17 : 44B(1), 79F(1), 105UU(2), 207D(2), 207D(6).

3.171: 206A(2).

3.172: 206A(2).

3.173: 23E(1), 23E(3), 23F(1), 204B(1), 212A(1), 212A(2).

3.174:

3.175:

3.18 :

3.19 : 49E(1), 77C(3), 79J(3), 79J(15), 105FFF(2), 158Q(2).

4.01 : 16J(1), 72A(1), 207D(5).

4.02 :

4.03 : 77J(4), 77J(11), 77J(12), 77J(13), 77J(15), 77R(1), 77R(2), 77R(8), 111H(1), 144S(4), 217E(2).

4.04 : 79C(1).

4.05 : 77J(9), 77J(14), 180B(1).

4.06 :

4.07 : 28C(4), 28C(5), 39A(1), 77GG(1), 77GG(2), 80D(1), 89B(1), 144S(1), 144S(2), 158F(1), 158F(3), 217E(1).

4.08 : 79L(1), 158F(2), 158F(3).

4.09 : 16G(1), 44C(1), 77J(1), 77J(8), 77J(10), 77J(13), 77GG(1), 77GG(2), 77UU(4), 192A(4).

4.10 : 23D(1), 23E(1), 77UU(4), 144DD(3), 144DD(4), 203C(1), 203D(1), 203I(1), 203V(1), 204N(1), 204N(2), 204N(3), 210D(2).

4.11 : 23D(1), 37E(1), 79L(1), 114C(2), 217E(2).

4.12 : 44C(1), 144S(3), 144S(4), 192A(5).

4.13 :

4.14 : 18H(2), 18H(3), 23D(1), 37E(1), 64E(1), 64E(2), 64E(3), 77J(5), 77J(6), 77J(7), 77J(8), 77J(9), 77J(10), 77J(11), 77J(12), 77J(13), 177F(2), 192A(2), 192A(4), 192A(5).

4.15 :

4.16 : 28C(1), 28C(2), 28C(3), 28C(6), 44C(1), 114C(2).

4.17 : 114C(1), 158F(1), 158F(3), 217E(1).

4.18 : 114II(2), 114II(3), 144S(1), 144S(3), 144S(4), 144DD(2), 144DD(3), 144DD(4), 144DD(5), 203D(1), 203I(1).

4.181: 77R(1), 77R(2), 177P(2), 204N(2).

4.182: 204N(3).

4.183: 77J(14), 77J(15), 111D(1), 114II(1), 203O(1).

4.184:

4.19 :

5.00 :

5.01 : 20F(1), 20F(2), 20F(3), 49J(1), 79P(1), 105S(1), 105FFF(1), 217G(1).

5.02 : 15A(2).

5.021: 105NNN(4), 177E(1).

5.022: 27B(3), 27B(7), 27B(9).

5.023: 37B(1), 79G(1).

5.03 : 18H(1), 216A(3).

5.04 : 10500(1), 105GGG(1), 177E(1), 177J(1), 218B(1).

5.05 : 15A(2), 210D(2).

5.06 : 15B(1), 15C(1), 27B(7), 28A(1), 64G(2), 69A(1), 77L(2), 77L(3), 77L(4), 77L(5), 79P(3), 77VV(1), 80E(2), 105Y(5), 105Z(1), 105CC(2), 105CC(3), 105GG(1), 134B(1), 158F(3), 2030(1).

5.061: 15A(1), 23B(1), 23F(1), 23G(2), 77TT(6), 105RR(1), 105RR(2), 206A(5), 207E(2), 208B(4), 210B(2).

5.062: 15A(1), 19C(1), 20C(1), 20K(1), 20K(2), 20K(3), 20F(4), 21A(1), 23E(3), 23G(2), 27B(5), 27B(6), 28B(2), 28C(1), 36B(1), 36C(1), 36C(2), 37H(4), 37I(3), 55C(3), 55G(1), 64E(3), 69A(2), 77L(1), 77L(6), 77L(7), 77L(8), 77L(9), 77L(10), 89B(1), 103A(1), 105U(1), 105Y(4), 105Z(2), 105FFF(5), 105FFF(6), 105FFF(7), 105NNN(5), 145A(3), 158F(1), 158F(2), 203M(2), 206A(3), 207D(1), 207E(2), 210B(2), 210D(2), 80E(1).

5.063: 20E(1), 28C(2).

5.064: 28B(1), 28B(2), 36B(1), 37A(1), 38C(2), 49H(1), 55D(1), 55D(2), 55D(3), 77ZZ(1), 105A(1), 208A(2), 49H(2).

5.07 : 16F(1), 16F(2), 16G(1), 64E(1), 71B(1), 77M(1), 77M(2), 77M(3), 77M(6), 77M(7), 77S(1), 105FFF(10), 105HHH(1), 198I(1), 198N(1), 203G(1), 208B(1), 208B(3), 215A(1).

5.08 : 105Z(1), 105GG(1), 105DDD(1), 105DDD(2), 105DDD(3).
180C(1).

5.09 : 23F(1), 37I(4), 64G(2), 77TT(1), 77TT(5), 77TT(6),
77TT(7), 77TT(8), 105FFF(2), 207E(1).

5.10 : 27A(1), 27B(2), 42D(1), 70B(1), 77E(1), 77J(2),
77J(3), 77LL(1), 77TT(2), 77TT(3), 77UU(4),
105XX(3), 105XX(5).

5.11 : 49J(1), 105Y(1), 105DDD(3), 105FFF(1), 105FFF(9),
145A(1), 204J(1).

5.111: 15A(1), 42B(2), 44A(1), 55D(3), 79P(5), 77KK(1),
79G(1), 103A(1), 105Y(3), 105RR(2), 105VV(2),
105DD(2), 120B(2), 120D(1), 129C(1), 134Q(2),
177C(1), 177E(1), 217D(1), 218I(1).

5.112: 18F(1), 20J(3), 26A(4), 36C(1), 37D(1), 37I(1),
79P(1), 79P(2), 79P(6), 77VV(1), 77WW(1), 77YY(1),
105BBB(1), 105FFF(8), 105LLL(1), 105OOO(1), 120D(1),
134Q(3), 177C(1), 203M(1), 218A(2).

5.113: 15B(2), 18F(2), 42B(3), 77KK(1), 77WW(1), 77ZZ(1),
80B(1), 105DDD(1), 198O(2), 203M(1).

5.114:

5.12 : 77C(3), 105BB(1), 105JJJ(1), 144Q(2).

5.13 : 16H(1), 18H(1), 20D(1), 27B(1), 37A(1), 64G(2),
105GG(2), 134A(1), 177D(1), 204J(2), 204M(1), 216A(1),
217C(2), 217C(3).

5.121: 15B(1), 15C(2), 32B(1), 77C(1), 98B(1), 105U(1), 105Y(2), 105HH(1), 105JJJ(2), 177L(2), 204H(1), 210B(2), 210B(3), 218A(5), 218K(1).

5.122: 15B(2), 18I(2), 27B(8), 28C(3), 28C(5), 35B(1), 64B(1), 77C(2), 77ZZ(1), 105OO(1), 105VV(1), 105NNN(2), 120B(1), 177L(2), 198G(1), 203M(3), 208D(1), 214D(1).

5.123: 18J(1), 38B(1), 42B(5), 77E(1), 77E(2), 77E(3), 77G(1), 77JJ(1), 77XX(1), 83C(2), 105R(1), 105GGG(2), 105NNN(1), 198D(1), 203M(3), 214D(1).

5.124: 89C(1).

5.14 : 18I(1), 23B(2), 27B(3), 28B(1), 55D(1), 55D(2), 77E(3), 83C(2), 105A(1), 105S(1), 105S(2), 105S(3), 105GG(2), 136T(1), 208B(1), 210B(2), 212A(2), 216A(1), 216A(2), 216A(3), 218C(1), 218E(1), 218K(1), 218K(2).

5.15 : 19C(1), 23E(3), 77TT(4), 77TT(8), 105BB(1), 203O(1).

5.16 : 20J(2), 20J(4), 23B(2), 49D(1), 64G(3), 105S(3).

5.17 : 77J(3).

5.18 : 18J(1), 20I(2), 28C(2), 64G(3), 83C(1), 105HH(1).

5.172:

5.173:

6.01 : 49E(1), 55C(2), 203P(1), 203S(1), 218E(1).

6.02 : 134Q(4).

6.03 :

6.04 : 180C(1).

6.05 : 145A(2).

6.06 : 44A(1), 144BB(1), 144DD(1), 145A(1), 145A(3).

6.07 : 134P(1), 145A(2), 212A(2).

6.08 : 23E(2), 23E(3), 144BB(1), 144DD(1), 180B(1),
180C(1).

6.081: 70B(1).

6.082: 23F(1).

6.09 : 16L(1), 180B(1), 204J(3), 205M(1), 208A(1).

6.10 : 19C(1), 77Q(1), 105FFF(6).

6.11 :

6.12 : 134Q(2).

6.13 : 77B(1).

6.14 : 44A(1), 105JJJ(2), 177P(2).

6.15 :

6.16 : 19C(1), 49E(1), 53A(1), 77C(3), 77G(1), 79F(1), 134K(2), 134Q(1), 134Q(3).

7.01 : 20D(1), 55B(1), 55B(2), 20F(3), 89D(1), 105S(1).

7.02 : 20J(1), 20J(3), 20K(2), 20K(4), 36C(2), 38A(1), 55B(1), 77R(4), 77R(5), 77R(6), 77R(7), 105Z(2), 105SS(1), 105SS(3), 105NNN(4).

7.03 : 20I(1), 27B(9), 38B(2), 55G(1), 77FF(2).

7.04 : 27B(9), 192A(2).

7.05 : 27B(3), 27B(9), 64G(1).

7.06 : 20J(3), 38A(1).

7.07 : 20E(2), 20E(3), 20E(4), 20E(5), 20I(1), 20I(2), 20I(3), 37A(2), 37I(5), 38A(1), 210D(1).

7.08 : 20E(2), 20E(4), 37I(1), 120D(1).

7.09 : 20F(2), 38C(2), 208A(1).

7.10 : 55B(1).

7.11 : 38B(1), 38B(2), 77M(3), 77R(7), 77JJ(1), 77TT(5) 89D(1), 207D(4).

7.12 : 16H(1), 20C(1), 20D(1), 36B(1), 36C(2), 38C(1), 64G(1), 71H(1), 77R(5), 77R(6), 77RR(1), 177P(1), 192A(1), 217C(1), 217C(2), 217C(3).

7.13 : 18H(2), 20F(2), 20I(1), 20I(2), 20I(3), 20J(2), 20K(1), 20K(2), 20K(4), 26A(3), 64G(3), 77TT(3), 105VV(1), 105FFF(3), 206A(4), 210A(2), 210D(1), 217C(1).

7.14 : 177D(1).

7.15 : 38C(1).

7.16 : 20C(2), 20C(3), 20J(1), 20J(3), 20K(3), 37A(2), 37H(3), 38C(1), 38C(2), 77M(8), 105R(2), 105R(3), 105R(4), 105R(5), 105R(6), 105R(7), 105R(8), 105R(9), 105FFF(3), 233B(1), 158Q(1).

7.17 :

7.18 : 20E(5), 20F(2).

7.19 :

7.20 : 20E(3).

7.21 : 105GG(1), 105SS(3).

7.22 : 20C(1), 23B(1), 105NNN(4).

7.23 : 77M(8), 177D(1), 177K(1).

7.231: 18H(3), 28A(1), 37I(4), 77R(3), 77UU(1), 79C(1), 79L(1), 144S(2), 177K(2), 210D(1), 218A(6), 218A(7).

7.232: 18H(3), 55B(1), 105UU(1), 105VV(3), 192A(3), 218B(1), 218G(1).

7.233: 105GG(1), 177P(1), 217C(1), 217C(2), 217C(3).

1.A Fox, G. H., and C. A. Joiner, "Perceptions of the Vietnamese Public Administration System," Adm.Sci.Quart., 8(4), March 1964: 433-481

1.231 Interviews with top-level Vietnamese civil servants revealed a
pattern of disillusionment with the mandarin philosophy permeating
7.03 much of the Vietnamese public administration system. Perceptions
of respondents also showed their acceptance of administrative cen-
7.231 tralization of a large public sector as vital in developmental administration. However, they perceived the extreme fusion of decisionmaking authority in the hands of a particularistic, ascriptive ruling family as leading to considerable irrationality in administrative behavior. At the same time as a result of pressures, particularly exogenous ones favoring bureaucratization, certain outward manifestations of rationalizing the bureaucratic system have been effected. The result was seen to be an instance of considerable formalism in which there was wide variance between formal structure and operating structure.

1.B Thompson, Victor A., "Administrative Objectives for Development Administration,"Adm. Sci. Quart., 9(1), June 1964: 91-108.

7.03 Administrative practices and principles of the West have derived from preoccupation with control and therefore have little value for development administration in underdeveloped countries where the need is for an adaptive administration, one that can incorporate constant change. However, adaptive administrative principles can be derived from the research and theories of the behavioral sciences, which should become the administrative objectives of development administrators. Illustrative of such objectives are: (1) an innovative atmosphere; (2)the operationalizing and sharing of goals; (3) the combining of planning (thinking) and acting (doing); (4) the minimization of parochialism; (5) the diffusion of influence (6) the increasing of toleration of interdependence; and the avoidance of burpathology. These propositions are illustrated by the ayalysis of some concrete administrative problems, such as the centralization-decentralization issue.

1.C Harris, R. L., and R. N. Kearney, "A Comparative Analysis of the Administrative Systems of Canada and Ceylon," Adm. Sci. Quart., 8(3), December 1963: 339-360.

1.232 One of the new techniques of comparative analysis developed in
recent years for the study of foreign systems of public administra-
1.06 tion is the "ecological" or "environmental" approach. Utilizing
such an approach, the following study compares the public administra-
5.124 tive systems of Ceylon and Canada in relation to their geographic,

7.03 economic, social and political setting. By examing these administrative systems on the basis of some of the more significant environmental influences affecting them, this study attempts to identify the cultural variables influencing public administration in an industrially well-developed Western nation and a developing new nation.

1.D Presthus, R. V., "Weberian v. Welfare Bureaucracy in Traditional Society," Adm. Sci. Quart., 6(1), June 1961: 1-24.

1.233 On the basis of an analysis of the Turkish coal industry, some
limitations of the Weberian model of bureaucracy for analysing
7.03 organizations in underdeveloped societies are put forward. The
concept of "welfare bureaucracy" is used is emphasize certain basic
7.231 differences in objectives, values and behavior between the Weberian
model and the typical state-owned enterprise in an underdeveloped society. In traditional society the claims and conditions of welfare, such as political control, full employment, central planning, and status and class bases of authority as opposed to those of skill, tend to dominate. Such disparities reflect essential differences in time, motivation, economic incentive, and educational values between western and traditional society.

1.E Riggs, F. W., "Prismatic Society and Financial Administration," Adm. Sci. Quart., 5(1), June 1960: 1-46.

5.01 The failure of national income and government revenue to keep
pace with growing demands for government expenditures creates an
7.03 acute crisis in the administrative system of every underdeveloped
country. The nature of this crisis can be more clearly understood if a theoretical model, entitled the "exoprismatic society", is used for analysis. The term "prismatic" is used for types of social systems based on "functional-structural" analysis. The prefix "exo-" designates a predominance of external as contrasted with internal dynamics or pressures in the processes of change. A characteristic combination of symptoms or stresses, called the "dependency syndrome", occurs in the model. This syndrome prevents efficient tax collection, budgeting, and expenditures control, and is, in turn, reinforced by the dilemmas of financial administration. The dynamics of the crisis is explained by the model, and possible applications of the theory to the study of empirical situations are indicated in the conclusions.

1.F Shore, E. L., "The Thai Bureaucracy," Adm. Sci. Quart., 5(1), June 1960: 67-86.

1.027 The Thai bureaucracy, viewed as a subsystem of Thailand's self-contained
political system, variously manifests cultural uniqueness.
7.03 Insulated from external pressures as a result of the absorption of
major societal interests within the government, the bureaucracy's
orientation and preoccupations are conspicuously introverted. Political
influence, personalities, and prerogative provide the immediate
frames of reference of administrative officialdom. Career strategies,
working doctrines, and standards of conduct in the civil service
are flexibly calibrated to the particularistic norms of ranking
superiors. Authority relationships, structured mainly by impermanent
personal clique groupings, are tenuous and unstable. But efforts to
institutionalize formal sanctions and channels of accountability
founder on a cultural predilection for informal and covert control
devices.

2.A Evans, P. C. C., "Western Education and Rural Productivity in Tropical Africa," Africa, 32(4), 1962: 313-323.

1.01 Western education in tropical Africa has been blamed for being
detriemental to both rural life and agriculture. It is said to have
4.11 brought about an aversion to manual labor, and to have provoked
urbanism. It is argued that western education is not anti-rural by
6.04 nature, and that the school does not only mean the western school,
but that the whole of European contact is responsible for the transmission
6.05 of European values. European schools in tropical Africa
are capable of contributing to rural productivity, if the curriculum
6.06 is well adapted to this aim. It will be the task of the
governments to formulate suitable agricultural policies for
6.14 following up activities after the pupils have left school.

3.A "Basutoland Fights For a Livlihood: Campaign for Improved Agriculture and Nutrition," African World, May 1962: 6.

1.126 Basutoland authorities, with the help of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, have begun carrying out
4.06 a two-year plan for intensifying agriculture and improving the diet
of the Basuto. The plan for agricultural intensification includes
extension courses, demonstrations at government farms, and the
encouragement of "progressive farmers." A progressive farmer scheme
was initiated about three years ago and has proved to be very popular.
There are now about 800 progressive farmers enrolled, and their
average acreage of crops cultivated each year has increased from 4.2
to 9 acres.

3.B "Kenya Africans' Land Disagreement; Renewed Anxiety Over Future of Scheduled Areas," African World, May 1962: 14-15.

1.016 This is an account of the latest developments in the scheme to
settle African farmers in the former white highlands, and of proposals
4.15 to extend the coast settlement schemes.

5.10

3.C "New Prosperity for Congo Farmers," African World, March 1958: 8.

1.127 This is a brief report on the success of the Belgian administration's
peasant settlement program and its educational campaigns to
4.15 introduce improved agricultural methods. Productivity and incomes
have increased notably.
6.08

3.D "Mechanising Gold Coast Agriculture," African World, March 1953: 33.

1.014 The Volta river hydroelectric scheme includes plans for irrigating
large areas of the Volta river basin and the Accra plains.
4.10 Cultivation by mechanized methods is envisaged, and this article
reports on plans to train farm machinery instructors at the Kumasi
6.08 College of Technology.

3.E Haarer, A. E., "African Extremes: Progress in Agriculture Hampered by Lack of Skilled Artisans and Foremen," *African World*, April 1950: 20.

1.01 This article argues that African peasants can be taught to
make use of better agricultural methods, but that agricultural
6.08 officers need more and better qualified assistants to accomplish the
task.

4.A Geldenhuys, I. S., "The Development of Agricultural Co-operation in South Africa," *Agrekon*, 1(3), July 1962: 12-20.

1.020 Although the functions of orderly marketing and price stabilisa-
tion were taken over by the control boards after the introduction of
4.07 control schemes, agricultural co-operatives have remained a suitable
and convenient medium through which control could be exercised.
4.08 There are, however, various agricultural products for which as yet
there are no control boards.

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5.A Richardson, R. W., "A Pattern of Practical Technical Assistance: The Rockefeller Foundation's Mexican Agricultural Program," *Agr. Sci. Rev.*, 2(1), Winter 1964: 12-20.

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6.A Johnson, R. W. M., "The Northern Province Development Scheme, Northern Rhodesia. Agricultural Development at Mungwi — a Project Analysis.," *Agric. Econ. Bull. for Africa*, 5, 1964: 42-110.

1.125 4.06 The Northern Province Development Scheme was a special experiment in rural development made possible by a loan of £2 million. The Northern province of Northern Rhodesia was chosen for the experiment partly because it seemed to lack agricultural potential and partly because it had felt the full effects of selective migration to the mines since copper mining started to expand rapidly in the early thirties. The scheme attempted to tackle the problems of the area by improving the amenities in the province to make them more comparable with those available in the mining towns and also by fostering development projects in transport and primary industry. The Mungwi scheme, which was the biggest Intensive Development Area in the whole development scheme, is described and the progress of the settlement scheme during 1958-63 outlined. Two separate agricultural enterprises were established at Mungwi apart from the training scheme. In 1960 a dairy farm of 30 Jersey cows was established in part of the cleared land to provide fresh milk for Mungwi and Kasama. Also in 1960 and for one year following a commercial crop of Turkish tobacco was grown. The various problems involved in making an analysis of the economic results achieved are discussed, with special emphasis on the indirect benefits which can be attributed to the project. All the relevant information on costs and returns are then brought together and an assessment is made of the economic results of the Mungwi scheme in its first five years. Finally an assessment is made of the project to 1967-1968 involving the future expansion of the settlement itself and the future operations of the dairy farm. These are taken in turn. In each case the assumptions that have to be made are set out first, then the calculation of total costs and returns, and finally the overall assessment which results.

6.B Shaw, D. J., "Labor Problems in the Gezira Scheme," *Agric. Econ. Bull. of Africa*, 5, 1964: 1-41.

1.128 4.09 A comprehensive analysis is made of the history of the labor problem in the Gezira Scheme in the Sudan Republic. The size of the tenancies is 16.8 hectare, which is too large to work without hired labor. Thus, the first tradition established in the Scheme was that the tenant was usually the manager of a holding, largely dependent for its cotton production on hired outside labor. The scheme provides work and food for over 70,000 tenants and over 200,000 casual laborers. The importance of human as well as physical factors in planning and operating the scheme, and the problems arising from the lag between economic and social change, are stressed. Possibly too much attemtion has been paid to technical efficiency to the neglect of other problems.

6.C Acock, A. M., "Land Policies and Economic Development in East and Central Africa," Agric. Econ. Bull. for Africa, 1, September 1962: 1-20.

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The object of this paper is to examine the economic aspect of land policies. The economies expand; the population rises and tends to aggregate in towns. Therefore those left in agriculture have to work more efficiently and use better methods. Agricultural production should be diversified and there should be a flexibility to shift from one pattern of production to another. Investments should be made in agriculture. The author then analyzes the criteria which should be fulfilled by the land tenure pattern, if agriculture is not to inhibit general economic growth. He follows this up by showing how the various land tenure patterns fulfill the economic criteria and makes recommendations.

6.D Bridger, G. A., "Planning Land Settlement Schemes (with special reference to East Africa)," Agric. Econ. Bull. for Africa, 1, September 1962: 21-54.

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4.15
This article reviews the experience with land settlement schemes in Tanganyika (Nachingwea, Urambo, and Kongwa), Uganda (South Busoga, Kigumba, and Bigyera), and Kenya (Makueni, Shimba Hills, Gedi, Lambwe, and eight other sites). General findings are summarized. In conclusion, the author states, "...it would seem wise to initiate settlement schemes, only where there is serious overpopulation which cannot be reduced by the introduction of improved techniques, better seeds and fertilizer or better crops."

6.E "Paysannat Settlement in the Congo (Leopoldville)," Agric. Econ. Bull. for Africa, 1, September 1962: 64-65.

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4.15
There exists no satisfactory simple translation of 'paysannat'. The paysannats indigenes of the ex-Belgian Congo show a new form of agricultural organization. The agriculturally re-structured peasant community denotes the basic objective, but the particularly noteworthy feature is in the initial streamlining of traditional systems in organizational formats capable of absorbing rapidly new techniques. The paysannats included several hundred thousand families by 1960, and could be found with great variation in form, size, and

degree of development in all the major geographical areas of the Congo. In most cases, particularly in the 1950's, participation was voluntary, but membership depended upon minimum adherence to prescribed practice. Each peasant allotment holder in the paysannat cultivates for his own account, paying a proportionate share of the jointly-provided services of mechanization, insecticides, etc.

7.A Afzal, M., "Development of Agriculture in Pakistan," Agr. Pakistan, 15(4), December 1964: 371-382.

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7.B Hussain, Mohammad, "How to Grow More Food in Pakistan," Agr. Pakistan, 11(1), March 1960.

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Analyzing the food situation in Pakistan, the author classifies the methods of tackling the problem as conventional positive and new positive. Under the new positive method measures he recommends central control of Village-AID programs, incentive through prize awards for highest yield per acre, publicity for grow-more-food campaigns, procurement price policy based on fair rates to growers and reasonable price to consumers, encouraging agricultural education, releasing the labor pressure on agriculture through shift to industry, proposed revision of land tenure system and use of varieties of available manures, elimination of smuggling, hoarding and blackmarketing, intensification of plant protection activities, preventing spread of water-logging and salinity, restrictions on slaughter of livestock by substitution of fish, abolition of fragmentation of holdings and effecting consolidation, adopting flood control and family planning measures. Implementation of these measures with resolution and vigor will, the author is confident, result in augmenting total farm production especially of foodgrains as well as raising per capita income.

8.A Moquit, Abdul, "Problem of Agricultural Credit in Pakistan," Agr. Economist, 1, 1958: 55-72.

1.022 Assuring that the supply of credit has an important place in
the analysis of the problem of rising productivity the author feels
4.05 that the problem is subject to some fundamental difficulties in
Pakistan. He refers to special difficulties imposed by the pressure
of overpopulation on land in Pakistan. The article examines the
existing facilities of rural credit in Pakistan and the difficulties.
Needs of agricultural credit are catagorized as short-term, intermediate,
long-term, resource development credit and distress credit.
In order to reorganize the credit machinery in Pakistan he enumerates
under the existing conditions the items that would require due
regard for consideration. He cites examples from the United States
for the encouragement of private institution credit and the steps
taken in India that may be useful in Pakistan. Expansion of cooperative
credit movement, land mortage banks for long-term credit,
supervision of low income farmers, financing land redistribution and
diversified versus centralized credit are thoroughly discussed.

8.B Tolley, Howard R., "Role of Agricultural Economics in Economic Development," Agr. Economist, 1, 1958: 13-20.

1.022 Stating that agricultural economics is simply the theory and
principles of economics as applied to agriculture, the author pro-
4.01 ceeds to discuss the problem by taking the specific part related to
economic development, such as production economics, economics of
7.231 land and water utilization, agricultural credit, marketing and
prices. Pakistan is discussed as a case-study where Government is
endeavoring to guide and accelerate the rate of economic development.
It is conclud4d that the expanded research in agricultural economics
will lead to better decisions on the part of planners and policy
makers and development could be more orderly and rapid.

8.C Shivamaggi, H. B., "Working of Agrarian Reform Laws in Bombay State. II. Farm Tenancy Legislation," Agric. Econ., Bombay, 3(9), March-May 1956: 9-11.

1.021

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9.A Athwal, B. Swaran Singh, "Role of Co-operative Marketing Societies in the Development of Regulated Markets," Agr. Marketing, 2(5), April 1959: 31-32.

1.021 The article examines how co-operative marketing societies can
help the regulated markets in achieving their objectives. Societies
4.17 can act as a sort of reinforcement to the Market Committees in
meeting the joint opposition of the dealers and the commission agents.
It is only the co-operative marketing societies that can follow
orderly marketing in the real sense. They can make use of the market
news by storing the produce in warehouses in the hope of getting
better prices; they can also take the place of the village money-
lender, collect the produce in the villages and sell them in the open
market. They have a sort of co-partnership with regulated markets,
which, if fully developed, can go a long way in the development of
marketing.

10.A Swanson, J. A., "Economic Growth and the Theory of Agricultural Revolution," Agr. Econ. Res., 16(2), April 1964: 51-56.

3.02

4.01

10.B Christensen, R. P., and H. T. Yee, "The Mechanics of Agricultural Productivity and Economic Growth," Agric. Econ. Res., 16(3), 1964: 65-71.

4.01 Increases in agricultural productivity contribute to national eco-
nomic development and income growth in two major ways: they release
4.03 labor resources for non-agricultural sectors and they supply an eco-
nomic output above that consumed or used for further production in
4.09 the agricultural sector — an "economic surplus" than can be transfer-
red out of agriculture to provide capital for economic growth in the
4.10 non-agricultural sectors. This paper suggests ways of measuring
changes in agricultural output, input and productivity, and the con-
4.11 tribution that increases in agricultural productivity can make to
national income growth. It deals with mechanical aspects of economic
growth and suggests an analytical framework for research on conditions
influencing improvement in agricultural productivity.

11.A Ramaswami, S., "Conservation of Agricultural Land and Leadership," Agric. Situation India, 18 (5), August 1963: 281-283.

1.021 Sooner or later, the country has to take up the problem of
diversion of agricultural land for non-agricultural purposes.
4.12 Agricultural land, being a scarce resource, cannot be permitted to
be nibbled at endlessly in different ways. The sooner suitable
4.14 resistance is put up, the better.

11.B Tyagi, S.S., "Some Aspects of Socio-Economic Changes in a Ravine Area Village," Agric. Situation India, 17 (8), November 1962: 845-851.

1.021 Village Goti is one of the villages surveyed in 1956-1957 and
resurveyed in 1961-1962 by the Agricultural Economics Research
4.14 Centre of the University of Delhi. This article presents a
preliminary view of the changes that have apparently taken place in the
5.07 village during the period of five years. The village continues to
present the picture of an underdeveloped and backward agricultural
5.08 economy. The root cause of the underdevelopment of the village
appears to be high population pressure on land. Effort should be
made to reclaim the entire area which is still lying as cultivable
waste. A massive plan should be launched to check soil erosion.

11.C Sharma, R.K., "Foreign Aid for India's Agricultural Development Program," Agric. Situation India, 16 (5), August 1961: 475-485.

1.021 In the field of agriculture, India has received financial
and technical assistance under various foreign aid programs. This
3.171 assistance has come in from the United States, Australia, Canada,
New Zealand, and Britian under the Colombo Plan, from specialized
3.172 agencies of the United Nations, and from the Netherlands, Norway,
and the Soviet Union. This article is a description of the various
3.173 aid programs and detailed analysis of quantum and type of
assistance received under their auspices.
4.03

11.D Sharma, S.L., "Progress of Agricultural Production in India--Myth or Reality," Agric. Situation India, 16 (3), June 1961.

1.021 In this article the writer shows that there has been a sizeable
increase in agricultural production since independence. In the
4.11 case of foodgrains, the increase has been contributed more by the
increase in the yield rate than by the expansion of area, while in
the case of cash crops the reverse has been the case.

11.E India. Directorate of Economics and Statistics. Plan Progress Board. "Progress of Agricultural Production," Agric. Situation India, 15 (5), August 1960: 546-554.

1.021 4.06 The Second Five-Year Plan broadly envisages a continuation and intensification of the process of agricultural development initiated under the First Plan. The Second Plan aims at providing adequate food for the increased population, the raw materials needed for a growing industrial economy, and larger export surplus to earn the much needed foreign exchange. It also aims at diversification of agricultural production through its emphasis not only on different crops but also on development of dairying, fishing, forestry, animal husbandry, etc. It provides for the strengthening of programs of agricultural research, education and training, extension services, etc. This paper illuminates the foci of the Second Five-Year Plan and mentions the targets of the Third Plan.

11.F Parthasarathy, G. and M. Meenakshi Malya, "Inter-Farm Productivity Differences,(A Case study of Kumudavalli Village), Agric. Situation India, 15 (1), April 1960: 1469-1474.

1.021 4.11 This is one of the special studies of data obtained through continuous village surveys undertaken by the agro-economic research centre, Madras. In this article the authors have tried to analyze the range of variation in the levels of per acre gross production, the factors responsible for variation in production and the magnitude of the contribution of each of the factors for variation in production among different classes of cultivators. Production functions have been fitted for each group of cultivators to analyze the factors responsible for variation in production.

11.G Patel, J.S., "Gaps between Agricultural Research and its Application in the Field," Agric. Situation India, 15 (5), August 1960: 457-464.

1.021 4.02 4.11 Indian agriculture has been absorbing the results of modern research in many fields with strikingly satisfactory results. But there exist many gaps between research findings and their utilization. Why these gaps emerge and how they could be eliminated form the theme of this article. The author calls for strengthening of existing organizations, establishment of new ones and for emphasis on some basic concepts, toward expeditious realization of national aims in agricultural production.

11.H Poduval, R.N., "Planning in Agriculture," Agric. Situation India, 14 (11), February 1960: 1204-1208.

1.021 Planning in agriculture and the fixation of targets have to
reckon with several factors including uncertain natural forces
4.06 and inadequate statistical data. The task for the future will have
to be, in many respects, more detailed and elabarate than in the
past, and should include land-use planning, the most judicious
combination of inputs, and integrated development of livestock,
crop and fodder production. A sufficiently far-reaching organization and incentives for the producer are also vital.

11.I Rao, K.S., "Operational Dimensions of our Food Problem. Parts I and II," Agric. Situation India, 15 (7 and 8), October and December 1960.

1.021 This series of articles presents an outline for an integrated
approach to the food problem based on a study of the structure
4.02 and dynamics of district production, consumption, surplus or deficit
of foodgrains in India. In the first article the structure and
4.11 growth, decay or stagnation of the districts in relation to cereals
have been analyzed. The second article indicates how the factors
affecting consumption level may be used in solving the food
problem in terms of the theory of dynamics of surpluses and deficits in inter-regional trade.

11.J Sastri, A.V.K., "Relative Contribution of Area and Yield to Increased Production of Wheat during the First Plan," Agric. Situation India, 15 (5), August 1960:

1.021 From a study of data of area, production, and yield per acre
of wheat of all the important wheat growing states in India and
4.11 also from a study of selected districts in Punjab and Uttar
Pradesh, the author has shown that increase in production is due
more to extension of area than to increase in yield per acre.

11.K Sen, S.R., "Impact and Implications of Foreign Surplus Disposal on Underdeveloped Economies," Agric. Situation India, 15 (8), November 1960.

1.021 In this lecture, the author pleads that, in the best interests
of both donor and the recipient countries, the aid should be
3.17 for a program and not for a project, and that along with the
commodity assistance an adequate supply of foreign exchange should
also be made available by the donor to the recipient country.

11.L Chawdhari, T.P.S. and M.L. Bhardwaj, "A Reconnaissance Study of Some Socio-Economic Changes in Villages Around Delhi," Agric. Situation India, 14 (5), August 1959: 452-456.

1.021 This article briefly presents the salient features observed
in a socio-economic profile study of eight villages within the
3.15 Intensive Cultivation Block area attached to the Indian Agricultural
Research Institute. The study revealed three principal
4.10 manifestations of the numerous changes taking place in these villages,
viz., (1) a perceptible urge and visible indications of
5.08 the desire of the people to improve their levels of living;
(2) technical improvements in farming and home-living among
different classes made possible by such a change in attitude;
(3) the farmers' tendency to accept the need for group and community
efforts for improvement of farming and village life. Seven
tables give data on subjects such as communication facilities and
nearest markets, distribution of population according to livelihood
classes, improvements in agriculture noticed at the level of
individual farmers, educational facilities, etc.

11.M Chawla, H.L., "Progress of Agricultural Production under the Second Five-Year Plan," Agric. Situation India, 14(5), August 1959: 515-535.

1.021 Agricultural development under the Second Five-Year Plan has
as its main objectives the provision of "adequate food to support
4.06 the increased population and raw materials needed for a growing
industrial economy and also to make available larger exportable
surpluses of agricultural commodities." The targets of additional
production laid down in the Second Plan are intended to be
achieved largely through the development of irrigation, development
and extended use of fertilizers, manures and improved seeds, and
improved agricultural practices. The article generally describes
the structural set-up under the Second Five-Year Plan.

11.N Krishnaswami, S.Y., "Kerala's Food Problem," Agric. Situation India, 14(8), November 1959: 879-880.

1.021 The paper argues that Kerala should promote a "spreadout
diet" and not try to grow rice at any cost. Rice yield is already
4.06 high, and additional investments to increase this yield would
be wasted. There is an absence of "resource" planning--that is,
4.11 plans should be made on the basis of the resources available.

4.12

11.O "Progress of Land Reforms," Agric. Situation India, 13(11), February 1959: 955-962.

1.021 The article compares and evaluates the progress of land reform
legislation in various states in India. "In the context of
4.14 national planning in India and the need for increased agricultural
production, institutional changes in agrarian structure are considered indispensable. These relate mainly to abolition of intermediaries, security of tenure, rate of rents, ceilings on holdings, consolidation of holdings, and prevention of fragmentation." While considerable progress has been made in enacting and implementing land reform legislation, the need for further and more extensive action has been indicated on some of the aspects. It pleads for avoiding delay and uncertainty in carrying out programs of land reforms.

11.P Rao, K.S., "Demography as a Factor in Indian Agricultural Planning," Agric. Situation India, 14(5), August 1959: 427-430.

1.021 Among the innumerable considerations governing agricultural
planning, concentration of population should find a leading place,
4.06 particularly in underdeveloped countries. The interaction between
the two has already been demonstrated in several ways in India,
5.07 providing a compelling background for a detailed study of the
subject for future use.

11.Q Sayigh, Yusif A., "The Place of Agriculture in Economic Development," Agric. Situation India, 14(5), August 1959: 444-451.

1.021 The thesis of the paper is that in the planning and process of
development of an economy, agriculture ought to have a prominent
3.01 place. Introductory remarks point to the confusion arising from
the old look of the phasing and the causation of economic

4.01 development. The author proceeds to argue the conditions of development and discusses the place of agriculture in economic development in the overpopulated, underdeveloped countries and in the underpopulated countries. In the case of those underdeveloped countries which are overpopulated, it is argued, siphoning off of excess population from agriculture to industry will be difficult since the rural population is traditionalist and will show excessive immobility, both in the geographical sense and in the sense of attitude. Instead, agriculture should provide the understructure for further development. Development of agriculture will also provide the industrial sector with large parts of its labor force and its inputs. The same approach, it is claimed, is valid for underpopulated, underdeveloped countries. It is concluded that agriculture has to be assigned a role of significance in the strategic arrangement of the sectors for development.

11.R Hannah, H.W., "Problem of Land Reforms in India," Agric. Situation India, 13(9), December 1958: 784-789.

1.021
4.14
This article examines the problems of land reform in India by analyzing the following ten situations, characteristic of Indian agriculture: (1) small holdings, (2) fragmented holdings, (3) pressure for food and fuel, (4) low income, (5) unprogressive land and crop management, (6) scarcity of suitable credit, (7) low population mobility, (8) slow industrial development, (9) lack of basic education and (10) a philosophy and social organization which resists change. The author poses three questions, viz., what problems grow out of these situations that have a relation to land reform? What is being done about them? What might be done? and seeks to answer them. Basically the problems of land reform are two: (1) how to increase the size of farms and (2) how to get better farming. Although these two problems are inter-related, a great deal can be done about the latter without regard to the former.

11.S Daniel, E.F., "Planning Farm Development: A Progress Report," Agric. Situation India, 9(11), February 1957.

1.021
4.06
4.11
This study was undertaken to test the possible utility and potential of the "farm planning" approach in India. Six case-study farms (irrigated) in Meerut and Muzzaffarnagar Districts in the United Provinces were selected for the study from cost-accounting records of the farm year 1954-55. First, an analysis was made of the present plan of operation by studying the resources available, and how the resources are used and then results were

obtained in terms of cash income and farm-produced commodities for home consumption. Second, three alternative plans for each of the six farms were developed. They indicate possibilities of shifting the use of present resources and measuring the results obtained in terms of cash income and farm-produced commodities for home use. The most important factors which seem to influence profitable farming in the area are: (1) acres under cash crops, (2) acres multi-cropped, (3) amount of fertilizers and (4) improved varieties of seed used.

12.A Synnerton, R. J. M., "Agricultural Advances in Eastern Africa," African Affairs, 61, July 1962: 201-215.

1.01 The author discusses the following topics: the ecological division in Eastern Africa; the problems of livestock in the semi-arial pastoral areas; the land of high potential; land tenure; the intensive approach to African farming; livestock improvement; cash crops and marketing; loan requirements for agriculture; population problems and resettlement. A discussion is also given.

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13.A Sheikh, A. U., "Role of Land Mortgage Banks in Agricultural Development," All-India Co-operative Rev., 26(8), November 1960: 443-453.

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The article examines the role that land mortgage banks can play in the agricultural development programs of the country and points out some of the difficulties. The author complains that, though these institutions have an important role to play in supplementing the efforts of the State in the programs of eradicating intermediaries on the land as also in accelerating the pace of land development and water-power utilization programs, they have been utterly neglected except in a few States. The absence of an open market price of land consequent to the various land reform measures and the high rate of interest which the member banks have normally to pay to raise funds, are the obstacles to the proper functioning of these institutions.

14.A Bedi, I. S., and R. P. Saxena, "Improved Agricultural Practices -- Behaviouristic Pattern of Farmers in Punjab and Uttar Pradesh," A.I.C.C. Econ. Rev., 16(22), 1965: 7-11 and 34.

1.021 To highlight the main factors leading to, or inhibiting, the
adoption and use of the improved agricultural practices in the states
4.10 of Punjab and Uttar Pradesh, six villages in each state were selected
for investigation by the Agro-Economic Research Centre, Delhi, during
4.18 1955-1963. The data were supplemented by the farmers' own views on
the adoption of various improved practices, e.g., involving irrigation,
seeds, fertilizers and implements, co-operation, land improvement,
and the consolidation of holdings. The effect of literacy on
the adoption of improved practices by farmers was also studied. The
factors impeding the adoption of improved practices were identified
as: (a) irregular supply of water and its maldistribution, (b) high
water rates, (c) lack of village leadership and joint action, (d)
inadequate and untimely supply of agricultural inputs, (e) no means
of demonstrating improved techniques, (f) the inadequate and untimely
provision of credit, (g) unfavorable prices, (h) the inertia, poverty
and illiteracy of the farmers, and (i) the belief in traditional
practices. Some possible government measures are suggested to enable
farmers to adopt the improved practices.

14.B Roy, M. S., "Education and Economic Development with Reference to India," A.I.C.C. Econ. Rev., 16(22) 1965: 7-11 and 34.

1.021 An examination is made of the way in which education can contribute
to rapid increase in national income by reducing economic
6.04 inequality in underdeveloped countries. The progress of education
both in quanitative and qualitative terms during the three five-year
6.05 plans (1950-1951 to 1965-1966) is then assessed to see how far the
present educational arrangement is growth-oriented. In the first two
6.06 plan periods, the number of primary schools increased by about 58 per
cent, and the number of students by 45 per cent; direct expenditure
6.07 was almost doubled. The number of secondary schools increased by
more than three times and the number of students by about 3½ times;
6.08 direct expenditure rose by about 3½ times. Considerable progress was
also made in vocational, technical and higher education. The defects
6.16 in the educational system are indicated. There is much scope for
improving the quality of education in India, and the Government
should take adequate measures, especially by allocating large financial
resources on education, with the aim of assisting rapid economic
growth.

14.C Sinha, S. P., and R. P. Verma, "Co-operative Finance and Agricultural Development: A Case Study," A.I.C.C. Econ. Rev., 17(7), 1965: 17-20 and 40.

1.021 This is a case study of the working of Agricultural Co-operative
Society at Bariarpur in the District of Champaran, Bihar, to test how
4.05 far finance is an inhibiting factor in agricultural development and
also to examine why available funds are not being fully utilized. It
4.17 appears that debt is incurred not for enterprise or development of
production but for physical and social survival. In the absence of
other necessary conditions, easy or liberal credit does not necessarily lead to investment. This is limited by the small and
scattered nature of the holdings, and risk element involved and only
economically better off groups have benefited from co-operative
credit. In the case of small farmers, co-operative efforts are
needed to mobilize available labor resources rather than co-operative
finance.

14.D Gupta, A. K., "Regional Progress in Farm Output and Productivity," A.I.C.C. Econ. Rev., 16(7), 1964: 35-38.

1.021 The period from 1949-1950 to 1960-1961 is covered in four 3-year
periods. The ranking of the states on the basis of growth of output
4.11 and growth of output relative to the growth of population remains the
same. But when productivity and level of yield are compared, the
5.07 ranks change. The level of yield in the states where productivity
improved during the last decade is not very high. It was significant
that substantial increases in output and productivity occurred in
those states where medium crop diversification prevails; the reverse
was true where one crop dominates (West Bengal, Assam, Orissa) or
where diversification is high (Uttar Prasesh). Despite this, the
productivity differential can be largely explained by the irrigation
factor.

14.E Husain, I. Z., "Social Forces and Economic Change," A.I.C.C. Econ. Rev., 15(14/15), January 1964: 157-161.

1.021 The article deals with social barriers to economic development
in underdeveloped countries, with particular reference to India.
3.01 These are the social milieu, social institutions, cultural patterns,
value system, customs, modes and traditions, etc. A frontal attack
5.11 on the social barriers of the underdeveloped countries will accelerate their rate of economic growth.

14.F Hooja, G. B. K., "Role of Agricultural Universities in Extension Program," A.I.C.C. Econ. Rev., 15(12), November 1963: 27-31.

1.021 The author visualizes some practical problems associated with Indian agricultural universities from the point of view of extension
4.19 orientation. The implications of the gap between developed and underdeveloped countries are broadly illustrated. Extension educa-
6.082 tion in Indian universities is so far not oriented to make it an applied science and is not able to produce competent technicians who, in turn, become effective contacts between extension workers and farmers in the fields, and, by discussing their problems with them at the field level, in agricultural production committees of the panchayat samitis, in panchayat assemblies, can highlight maladies and suggest remedies for lifting the agricultural economy from its present level of low productivity.

14.G Nair, S. P., "Social Factors in the Acceptance of Improved Practices," A.I.C.C. Econ Rev., 15(13), December 1963: 35-39.

4.10 This article is a review of the work done elsewhere in the world on methods and processes of adopting improved technology and
4.18 farm practices and the relevant factors associated with them. Traditionally accepted values and practices are challenged by the new element of change sought to be introduced. Adoption of a new technique is not a single act, but a process with a series of stages in adoption. The most important of these are: awareness, information or interest, application or evaluation, trial adoption. Research studies in various countries focus on the importance of the farmers' social characteristics in the adoption or rejection of directed change, sponsored by external agencies. The basic factors that influence the farmer's adoption processes are: cultural background, farmer's age, education, farm ownership, farm size, and finally participation in formal groups.

14.H Reddy, N. Sri Rama, "Agricultural Growth in India," A.I.C.C. Econ. Rev., 15(3), July 1963: 4, 19-22, and 35-42.

1.021 Development of Indian agriculture is considered under population and agriculture, and import of food grains. The author examines the
3.16 problem of low productivity and yield rates of various crops and per capita consumption in India as compared to that in other countries.
4.11 Livestock and poultry raising conditions are discussed in relation to other developed and developing countries. In conclusion, emphasis
5.07 is laid on raising agricultural output for the general growth of the national economy.

14.I Mahajan, V. S., "The Role of Agriculture and Industry in Economic Development," A.I.C.C. Econ. Rev., 13(1), May 1961: 27-30.

3.01 The article examines in the light of the experience of developed
countries, such as Britain and the United States, the role of agri-
4.01 culture and industry in economic development and studies the relevance of such experience to the problems of development in less developed countries. The interdependence between the two sectors which make them to a considerable degree complementary is described at some length at the beginning. After briefly considering the views of Professors Lewis and Leibenstien, the author concludes that a mere agricultural, industrial or export program is not sufficient to bring about economic development. The different sectors should grow simultaneously, though not at the same rate, to ensure a speedy development of the economy.

14.J Rao, K. S., "Economics of Organizations in Relation to Economic Development," A.I.C.C. Econ. Rev., 13, January 1961

1.021 The author makes a plea for co-operative types of economic
organizations and their integration with the existing ones in order
4.17 that economic growth may be expedited, inequalities reduced, and employment opportunities widely distributed through the normal functioning of the democratic system. He argues that the co-operative type of business or industrial organization necessitates a new type of analysis of economic growth different from the one applicable to joint stock method of organization.

14.K Ghosh, Sailen, "Some Problems of Food Production in India," A.I.C.C. Econ. Rev., 11, January 1960: 16-18 and 175-177

1.021 The article mentions three approaches to tackle India's food
problem: (1) increase in agricultural productivity; (2) institu-
4.03 tional changes through imposition of ceilings and distribution of
surplus land among small holders or landless laborers and (3) organi-
4.11 zation of co-operative farms on surplus lands. The last course, it
is argued, would not prove very successful since the amount of
4.17 surplus land available as a result of ceiling legislation would not
be large as the persons likely to be affected by the legislation
7.24 would try to avoid it in some way. Huge state farms on reclaimed
land are, therefore, not considered objectionable. It is further argued that the scale of expenditure on agriculture in the Third Five-Year Plan will have to be commensurate with the targets laid down for it and exclusive reliance by the government machinery on popular support and initiative would prove to be illusory. There is,

therefore, need to strengthen the agricultural extension staff of the Government to attain the necessary minimum of increase in production. The author points out organizational shortcomings in the Community Development and National Extension Service blocks, and makes out a case for investing sufficient funds for the production of fertilizers. A plea is made for the establishment of cooperative marketing societies with a view to mobilizing savings in the agricultural sector. The article stresses the importance of provision of incentives to agriculture production, a system of loan in kind on the pattern of a supervised credit system, provision of other ancilliaries to increase agricultural production.

14.L John, P. V., "Capital as a Significant Factor for Structural Changes in Indian Agriculture," A.I.C.C. Econ. Rev., 12, November 1960: 12.

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The author has examined briefly the economic changes that have taken place in Indian agriculture during the period 1948-1958. He states that the increase in agricultural out-put was mainly due to underlying structural changes that took place in the basic variables of land, capital and labor though these changes were by no means dynamic.

14.M Khan, N. A., "Agricultural Resource Mobilization in India," A.I.C.C. Econ. Rev., 12, May 1960: 11-19.

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The central theme of this article is that creation of investible surpluses in agriculture is both cheap and quick. Therefore, great stress should now be laid on agriculture. But since mobilization of surpluses from agriculture for productive purposes is difficult, the prices of agricultural goods should be brought down to such a level that some profits pass on to the industrial sector from which collection by the Government in form of taxation, borrowing, etc. will be relatively easy.

14.N Khushro, A. M., "Agriculture and Structural Change," A.I.C.C. Econ. Rev., 11(16-18), January 1960: 115-119.

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This article deals with the problem of increasing agricultural production. Increase in productivity, it is argued, depends on (1) the wherewithal of agriculture, such as use of better seeds, fertilizers, irrigation facilities etc. and (2) increased capital formation in agriculture. It is further argued that both these conditions must be satisfied in order to achieve increased production and

productivity per acre. However, in order that they may utilize these items, farmers must be provided with adequate incentives. He discusses and pleads for the removal of two major disincentives in Indian agricultural set-up, viz., decay of tenancy system and the adverse man-land ratio. The author makes out a case for an integrated approach to the problem of farm productivity. Such an approach envisages various measures such as consolidation of holdings, ceilings in holdings, cooperativization of farms, reclamation of cultivable waste lands, etc. It is argued that surplus land available as a result of above measures should be given to small farmers and not to landless laborers, and that peasants must be induced to join cooperatives. The author concludes that structural change involving effective land reforms and enlargement of the small units of cultivation will solve the problem of farm productivity in India.

14.0 Acharya, Hemlata, "Techniques of Evaluation of Programs for Rural Development," A.I.C.C. Econ. Rev., 10(16-18), September 1959: 65-69.

1.021
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The article discusses some of the programs of rural development and makes an attempt to evolve a technique which would evaluate programs purely in relation to growth indicators which may be later on correlated to the response and participation of the people. Programs are not only to be evaluated in terms of "physical development" but also in terms of the development of human resources and human welfare. It emphasizes that the technique should embrace all activities and all programs and should not only measure welfare but indicate the direction of total welfare also. Some of the representative indicators have been enumerated which center around income, employment, production with efficiency, welfare, etc. In conclusion, it is stated that there can be no one technique that could be made to serve the purpose for all the time for evaluating the programs of development.

14.P Bebarta, P. C., "Social Problems and Technological Change in Community Reconstruction," A.I.C.C. Econ. Rev., 10(20), February 1959: 6-8.

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An innovation, whether a new technique or a new tool or a new idea, is hard to introduce in a community because of a variety of types of resistance. In inducing a change, the structural functional relationships of different institutions, value systems, personality traits, as they work in the given framework of the culture pattern,

have to be thoroughly comprehended. It is believed that innovations can be accepted and maintained only if they are institutionalized.

14.Q Brahmananda, P. R., "A New Approach to Planning," A.I.C.C. Econ. Rev., 11(15), December 1959: 27-32.

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The article postulates that any plan for economic development of India must solve the twin problems of unemployment (open or disguised) and low levels of living. It is argued that the traditional strategy of per worker capital intensification appears very uneconomical in India. Instead it would be better to utilize the available savings in the form of investment by distributing them over as many workers as possible. The latter approach, it is claimed, would help solve India's unemployment problem. Further, in the context of the seemingly conflicting objectives of future planning, such as the highest possible rate of growth of income, the highest feasible rate of growth of consumption, the highest possible rate of growth of employment, etc., a new approach to planning in India is deemed imperative. The article shows, with the help of the Harrod Model and the consumption income-multiplier, how in an economy in which there is abundance of potential surplus labor, an increase in the supply of wage-goods would enable the economy to expand the volume of employment in the investment sectors considerably.

15.A Dalton, George, "Economic Theory and Primitive Society," Am. Anthropologist, 63(1), February 1961: 1-25.

1.06 This is a discussion of the reasons why economic theory cannot be fruitfully applied to the study of primitive communities,
3.01 presenting an "alternative approach to analytical treatment of primitive economy." The method and content of economic theory
3.08 are seen as having been shaped "by two central features of nineteenth century Britain: factory industrialism and market organization." It is suggested that the misleading assumptions that
5.01 ...
5.06 relevance to all economies stem from an erroneous linking of two different meanings of the concept "economic:" (1) "in the substantive sense, economic refers to the provision of material goods which satisfy biological and social wants," and (2) as denoting "a special set of rules designed to maximize the achievement of some end or to minimize the expenditure of some means." In market-organized industrialism both meanings of economy are relevant. But "that every society must have substantive economic organization to provide material means of existence does not mean that each must have that special set of market exchange institutions for the analysis of which formal economic theory was uniquely designed." The fact that the United States is pervasively market-organized and industrialized while the Trobriands is neither "makes the differences in economic organization and processes between the two more important than the similarities." Thus "economic mechanisms, practices, and processes common to both primitive and Western economies are institutionalized differently and often function in different ways and for different purposes." It is concluded that for the study of primitive economy "one must start from ethno-economic analysis--with Malinowski, not Ricardo--in order to choose those transformation paths to industrialization which entail only the unavoidable social costs."

Propositions

5.061 (1) If kinship systems are well developed and give the individual a sense of security, it is probable that they will form a
5.062 barrier to the individual's drive for upward mobility. (P. 8.)
Evidence: Comparative analysis of evidence: industrial
5.111 and non-industrial societies.

1.06 (2) If a money economy is introduced to a primitive society, then it is probable that traditional forms of credit will be
3.06 destroyed. (P. 17.)
Evidence: Case history of Indian tribe of British
3.08 Columbia.
5.02
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15.B Mahoney, Frank J., "The Innovations of a Savings System in Truk," Am. Anthropologist, 62(3), June 1960: 465-482.

1.053 Various attempts to persuade the population of the Caroline
Islands to start saving have failed, until in 1951 saving in groups
3.03 was initiated. Meetings for the collection of voluntary contributions
first appeared to be imitations of church services, then
5.061 of Trukese first fruit ceremonies. Strong identification between
individual and lineage made meetings in which money was deposited
5.121 with lineage popular. Competition between lineages and individuals,
and entertainment at meetings contributed to the success of
5.113 the meetings. Funds were used to give loans, to buy stock in the
Truk Trading Company, to help to start other companies and to buy
capital goods. Attitude toward money was similar to that for
food. Money was treated not so much as capital but as something
to be used up before it went bad. When novelty of the system
wore off and most needs were filled, the number of meetings decreased
and by 1957 ceased.

Propositions

1.053 (1) If a country and its people are not characterized by a desire
to save but have strong attachments toward relatives and kin
3.03 groups,then saving may be by introducing savings programs at
a group level and developing competition in saving between
3.15 groups. (p. 469.)
5.06 Evidence: Case history of savings programs in Truk.
5.121

1.053 (2) If the process of saving in a primitive society can be made
to resemble an older, traditional custom, then the accumulation
3.03 of capital will be facilitated. (P. 470.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.
5.122

1.053 (3) If people in a country believe that money is an item of consumption
and must be used before its value is lost, then
3.03 saving and capital accumulation will suffer. (P. 478.)
Evidence: Unsubstantiated generalization.
3.15
5.113

15.C Nash, Manning, "The Multiple Society in Economic Development: Mexico and Guatemala," Am. Anthropologist., 59(5), October 1957: 825-833.

1.043
1.046
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A comparative analysis of Guatemala and Mexico identifies the potentially innovative groups that might successfully promote economic development. Various urban and rural segments are considered in terms of their command over national wealth, political influence, and tendencies toward economic conservatism or innovation. The middle class is identified as the segment potentially interested in economic development and having the potentials to promote it successfully. Realization of middle class economic potentialities depends on political ascendancy and the support of large population segments. Present economic commitments tend to exclude segments other than the Indian and the urban lower class. Thus, conditions for middle class political success include an economic program appealing to these groups.

Propositions

1.043
1.046
5.06

(1) If a peasant class in a developing country refuses to or does not evolve into a working class, then the probability of a middle class emerging is reduced. (P. 828.)
Evidence: Comparative analysis of economic development in Mexico and Guatemala.

1.043
1.046
3.02
3.15
5.121

(2) If a developing country has a class which is devoted to industry as the only way to achieve status and wealth, then industrialization will be hastened. (P. 829.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

16A Paglin, Morton, "'Surplus' Agricultural Labor and Development: Facts and Theories," Amer. Econ. R., 55(4),1965: 815-833.

1.021 Indian data are used to challenge the widely held assumption that disguised unemployment and surplus labor are prevalent in the
4.01 agricultural sector of underdeveloped countries. Statistical analysis supports the following chain of reasoning. Farm size is
4.06 inversely related to output per acre; small farms have higher outputs per acre than the larger farms because of higher inputs of
4.09 labor and capital, related to the use of more double-cropping. Large farms generally cultivate the land below the economically feasible levels of intensity, and this underutilized land resource could provide for considerably more employment. Capital resources in the form of major irrigation facilities are also underutilized; a sizable percentage of the water currently runs to waste.

Propositions

No propositions.

16B Reynolds, Lloyd G., "Wages and Employment in a Labor-Surplus Economy," Amer. Econ. R., 55(1), 1965: 19-39.

1.044 This article examines the behavior of real wages and employment in Puerto Rico from 1945 to 1964. The purpose is to test
3.05 development models which assume a constant real wage level.

Puerto Rico has had a substantial labor surplus throughout the
3.10 period. Unemployment has fallen only slightly despite a successful industrialization program. The real wage level has nevertheless risen rapidly, mainly because of awards under United States and Puerto Rican minimum wage legislation.

The rising wage level has retarded the expansion of employment in two ways: it has reduced the incentive for U.S. companies to establish branch plants in Puerto Rico; and it has stimulated established plants to economize labor, mainly through increased inputs of management effort. We estimate the elasticity of demand for labor in Puerto Rican manufacturing for the periods 1949-54 and 1954-58, using simple linear regression. The elasticity estimate is -1.13 for 1949-54, and -0.94 for 1954-58.

The results suggest that the real wage constancy assumed in the Lewis and Fei-Ranis models is unlikely to occur in practice, and that transfer of labor to the industrial sector is correspondingly more difficult. They suggest also the advisability of wage restraint as an element in development policy.

Propositions

1.044 (1) The probability that entrepreneurs will introduce labor saving devices increases with the increasing cost of labor.
3.10 (This condition is disastrous in an over-populated country.) (P. 36.)
3.11 Evidence: Generalization (not quantitative) from the Puerto Rican experience.

16C Haberler, Gottfried, "Integration and Growth of the World Economy in Historical Perspective," Amer. Econ. R., 54(1), 1964: 1-22.

3.01
3.18 The recent schemes of regional integration such as the European Common Market, the Latin American Free Trade Area, have been preceded during the last two hundred years by three waves of world-wide integration. The first was the internal integration of the economies of the nation states--Great Britain, France, the U.S.A. in the 18th Century, Germany, Italy, etc, in the 19th Century. The second overlapping wave was the free trade movement in the second half of the 19th Century and the rapid growth of the world economy until World War I. There followed disintegration and decline of world trade 1914-1945. The third wave of reintegration and rapid growth started in 1948 and is still in progress.

Each of these periods is discussed in some detail with special emphasis on the post World War II period. The interwar period of disintegration and especially the Great Depression was a singular historical event. It was due to institutional weaknesses (e.g., collapse of the U.S. banking system) and horrendous policy mistakes on the national and international level, causing or permitting severe deflation, and had nothing to do with deep-seated real maladjustments or secular stagnation.

The expansion of world trade in the 1950s and 1960s has been very rapid. It was propelled by, but has also powerfully contributed to, the remarkable economic growth of all industrial countries including the U.S. and U.K. World trade has grown faster than world production which had not happened for many decades. The general liberalization of trade and payments which has taken place since 1948 or so was an indispensable condition for this favorable development. It is argued that up to now this world-wide integration which was further promoted by a sharp decline (in real terms) of ocean freight rates has been much more important and beneficial than the regional (discriminatory) integrations.

Contrary to what is often said, the less developed countries, too, have participated in the growth of world trade. The quantum of their exports and imports has grown at a substantial rate throughout the postwar period though not as rapidly as the trade of the industrial countries. Reasons are given why the trade between the industrial countries is probably less valuable, dollar for dollar, than trade between the developed and the less developed countries.

The terms of trade of the less developed countries have deteriorated since 1953. Although substantial, the deterioration was not nearly as severe as during the 1930s. The deterioration came to an end in 1962 and in 1963 prices of many raw materials rose sharply and the export earnings of the less developed countries increased substantially. It is argued that so long as the industrial countries avoid serious depressions and high protection, and barring a technological revolution such as the invention of synthetic coffee, a catastrophic deterioration of the terms of trade of the primary exporters is virtually impossible.

In a concluding section on the conditions for further growth of world trade, the chances of further trade liberalization are discussed and the dangers of balance of payments troubles or protectionist policies on the part of regional blocs throttling world trade are briefly reviewed.

Propositions

No propositions; historical treatment.

16D Nelson, Richard R., "Aggregate Production Functions and Medium Range Growth Projections," Amer. Econ. R., 54(5), 1964: 575-606.

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This study presents an analysis and comparison of the implications of several different but related aggregative models of long-run economic growth; the new and old style Solow models, and Denison's growth analysis. These models differ somewhat in both their explanations of past economic growth and their projections of future growth. The analysis begins by examining the variables and relationships stressed by the various models, and the different explanations of the 1929-1960 growth record that these models provide. Then a general aggregative production function is developed which includes the various models as special cases. The role of growth of the labor supply, of capital formation, of technological advance, and of rising educational standards in economic growth is examined under a number of different assumptions within the framework of the general model. Certain complementary relationships between these variables are then explored in more detail, and alternative explanations of the 1929-1960 growth record are viewed within this richer framework. Finally, the study examines a number of growth protections for the American economy, attempts to evaluate them within the framework provided by the general model, and suggests some of the major uncertainties involved in growth projections. One of the conclusions reached by the study is that there is a wide range of possible explanations of the 1929-1960 growth record depending on the assumed underlying model and the values of the parameters. Presently it is very difficult to say which of the explanations seems nearer to the truth. Another conclusion is that projections of U.S. growth over the next decade are extremely sensitive to the economic model used in making those projections, as well as to the assumed rates of growth of capital stock and total factor productivity. The different explanations of past growth lead to quite different contingency projections of future growth.

Propositions

No propositions.

16E Ojha, P.D., and V.V. Bhatt, "Pattern of Income Distribution in an Underdeveloped Economy: A Case Study of India," Amer. Econ. R., 54(5), 1964: 711-720.

1.021

3.05

It is the object of this paper to estimate the pattern of income distribution in India on the basis of all available data and to compare it with the patterns in some of the developed economies during recent years as well as during the earliest historical period for which estimates are available. This comparative study leads to the following tentative conclusions: (1) The pattern of income distribution in India is more or less similar to the patterns in some of the developed countries and is more even than the pattern in some of the underdeveloped countries and the pre-1930 pattern in some of the developed countries. (2) However, the distribution pattern in the urban sector seems to be more uneven in India than in some of the developed countries and the trend seems to be towards an increase in the degree of inequality in income distribution in the urban sector in India. (3) In the rural sector, there seems to be much less difference between the distribution pattern in the developed countries and the underdeveloped countries than that between countries with large scale capital-intensive agriculture and those with less commercialized and less capital-intensive agriculture. (4) As in some of the developed as well as the underdeveloped countries, in India, too, the distribution pattern in the rural sector is more even than the pattern in the urban sector. (5) The generalization about greater unevenness in the distribution pattern in the underdeveloped countries than in the developed countries does not seem to be valid in the light of the Indian distribution pattern.

Propositions

1.021 (1) The probability of an unequal distribution of income increases with urbanization (exceptions are the U.S. and Italy).

3.05 Evidence: Quantitative data on income distribution, especially for India, although other countries are included for comparison.

16F Adelman, Irma, "An Econometric Analysis of Population Growth," Amer. Econ. R., 53(3), 1963: 314-339.

1.06

5.07

The purpose of this paper is to investigate the effects of economic development upon the rate of population growth. The manuscript starts with an econometric analysis of fertility and mortality patterns as they are affected by economic and social forces. First, age, specific birth and death rates in various counties are correlated with several economic and socio-cultural indicators. The significant variables in the birth rate analysis were: the real national income per capita (in 1953 U.S. dollars), the per cent of the labor force employed outside of agriculture, an index of education, and in indicator of population density (the number of inhabitants per square mile). In the mortality regressions, in addition to the real national income per head and to the per cent of the labor force employed in industry, the percentage rate of growth of per capita real income and a health indicator--the number of physicians per 10,000 inhabitants--were also significant. Except for the rate of growth of per capita income, all variables were in logarithmic form and the regression equations were linear.

As a partial test of the validity of this approach the derived results were used to estimate crude birth and death rates in 1953 in the various continents. The results obtained with this approach were generally superior to estimates compiled by the U.N. which were based upon purely demographic considerations.

Finally, a quantitative feeling for the relative impact of changes in economic and social variables upon the demographic features of a society is obtained with the aid of a set of comparative statics "demographic multipliers." For an economy with given demographic and socio-economic features, these multipliers specify the changes in the equilibrium age distribution and in the equilibrium rate of population growth which would result (ceteris paribus) from a permanent change in each of the socio-economic variables. The implications of the multiplier calculations for economic development are rather encouraging. They indicate, for example, that the increase induced in the rate of population growth by a 25% improvement in per capita income would not raise population by more than 1% over a 5-year period.

Propositions

5.07 (1) The probability of high birth rates decreases with higher incomes, urbanization, and rising levels of education. (Pp. 321-323.)
Evidence: Regression analysis of U.N. population data, 1947-57.

5.07 (2) The probability of high death rates decreases with higher incomes, urbanization, and improved medical services. (Pp. 328-329.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

16G Fei, John C.H., and Gustav Ranis, "Innovation, Capital Accumulation and Economic Development," Amer. Econ. R., 53(3), 1963: 283-313.

1.025
1.021
3.01
3.02
3.03
3.10

The heart of the development problem in labor surplus underdeveloped economies lies in the reallocation of the labor force from the agricultural sector to the industrial sector at a rate in excess of the rate of growth of population. The speed of this process is a function of the rate of capital accumlation, the intensity of innovations, and the degree of labor-using bias of innovations.

Once these relationships are precisely known, the growth path of any country which finds itself in an "unlimited supply of labor" condition can then be decomposed into the rate of industrial labor absorption due to capital accumulation and that due to technological change. Applying this to the actual experience of Japan from 1888-1930 and India from 1949-60 yields the conclusion that nineteenth-century Japan opted heavily for indigenous-based labor-using innovations leading to capital shallowing in her industrial sector, while India from the outset adopted labor-saving innovations leading to capital deepening. As a direct consequence Japan was successful in shifting her center of gravity from the agricultural to the industrial sector, while India's rate of labor reallocation has been below her rate of population growth. The short-run policy conclusion derivable from this comparative analysis is that the less-developed economy with a labor surplus must choose innovations which are as labor-using as possible from the point of view of maximizing both industrial employment and output.

An examination of the long-run growth prospects of the dualistic economy finally leads us to the inevitability of the appearance of a turning point--around 1919 in the case of Japan--as the unlimited supply of labor condition ends and industrial capital shallowing gives way to capital deepening.

Propositions

3.02 3.10 4.09 5.07 (1) A necessary condition of economic development is a circumstance where the agricultural population is reallocated to the industrial sector more rapidly than the agricultural population is increased by population growth. The percentage of the population engaged in agriculture must decline. (Pp. 289-297.)

Evidence: Time series data for Japan and India are analyzed to contrast the situation where this proposition is satisfied (Japan) and where it is not satisfied (India).

16H Mason, Edward S., "Interests, Ideologies, and the Problem of Stability and Growth," Amer. Econ. R., 53(1), 1963: 1-18.

1.06 3.02 7.08 7.16 The central question here considered is whether the current relations between government and various interest groups in the United States handicap the attainment of stability and growth. There is evidence that the relations between business and government in this country are substantially more distant than in most Western European countries. The size, economic geography, and racial composition of the country have something to do with this. More important are historical influences, in particular the rapid growth of the relative importance of the public sector to which the community is not yet completely adjusted, and the extraordinary position of business in the period following the Civil War. The growth, with government assistance, of powerful trade unions is an even more recent phenomenon. Organized labor in the United States has, however, no particular ideological predilections and the absence of doctrinal differences on such matters as government ownership and government regulation is striking.

Despite the absence of obvious class conflict, the character of interest groups and their relation to government are such as seriously to handicap effective stabilization policy. The handicaps are most obvious in the areas of wage-price and fiscal policy. The decentralization of power in the American labor movement and the hostility of both labor and business in any governmental intervention in this area effectively prevent anything in the nature of a national wage policy. Western European economies are, of course, plagued by a wage and price creep but it tends to take place at one to two percent unemployment rather than four to five percent. Fiscal policy tends also to be a much less flexible instrument than in many other countries. Minor reasons are such restraints as debt ceilings and interest limitations. The major difficulties, however, are deeply held views on the desirability of budgetary balance, suspicion of almost any increase in government spending, conflicting views of interest groups on proper changes in the tax structure, and, above all, a general distrust of government as a manager of the economic environment.

Consequently it seems clear that any approach to a satisfactory situation with respect to stability and growth will owe much less to deliberate policy and much more to autonomous developments in the economy than has been true in recent years in Western Europe. And for this the historically determined relationships between government, business, and labor are largely responsible.

Propositions

3.02 (1) The probability of economic stability and growth will be
increased if the economic environment is made less uncertain.
5.13 Growth is stable if the environment allows prediction. (P.13.)
Evidence: Generalization from the role of the govern-
7.12 ment in the resurgence of the French economy since 1958,
i.e., the importance of the government's role was to
make the environment predictable.

16I Frankel, Marvin, "The Production Function in Allocation and Growth: A Synthesis," Amer. Econ. R., 52(5), 1962: 995-1022.

3.01 Two production functions have in recent decades occupied a
prominent place in aggregative economics. One of these, the Cobb-
3.13 Douglas function, possesses properties that have made it useful
in the allocation-distribution realm, and it has played a central role in efforts to explain the alleged relative stability in the income shares of capital and labor. The other, a simpler function in which output depends on but a single factor, capital, has played an important role in growth economics and is often found in models of the Harrod-Domar type. Unfortunately, each of these functions serves poorly in the others' domain.

The present paper advances a method for reconciling the two production functions so that the desirable properties of each, but none of the limitations, are retained. It is shown that each function is but a special case of a more general function and of a more general way of viewing the economic process in which recognition is given to the relation between the production function for the enterprise and that for the economy. The approach recognizes the indirect as well as the direct effects of changes. A main conclusion is that the Cobb-Douglas type of function can hold fully in the allocation realm while the Harrod-Domar type of function can simultaneously hold fully for growth. An ancillary conclusion is that there is neither any need for nor necessary virtue in an aggregate production function that possesses some desired set of allocation-distribution properties.

Some implications of the approach for growth models are explored and the results of preliminary efforts to apply it to historical data are presented. The question of the secular stability of the rate of return to capital also is briefly discussed.

Propositions

No propositions; methodological treatment.

16J Johnston, Bruce F., and John W. Mellor, "The Role of Agriculture in Economic Development," Amer. Econ. R., 51(4), September 1961: 556-593.

3.01 The authors examine the interrelationships between agriculture and industrial development and analyze the nature of
3.02 agriculture's role in the process of economic growth. In the first part of the paper the special characteristics of the agri-
4.01 cultural sector in the process of economic development are discussed, in the second agriculture's contributions to economic development, and in the third resource requirements and priorities for agricultural development. Emphasis is laid on features that have a high degree of generality, but diversity among nations and the characteristic variety of agriculture limit the validity of a condensed general treatment. It is, however, believed that the general thesis advanced has wide relevance: rural welfare as well as overall economic growth demands a transformation of a country's economic structure, involving relative decline of the agricultural sector, and a net flow of capital and other resources from agriculture to the industrial sector of the economy. The authors differ from those who hold that agricultural development should procede or take priority over industrial expansion, and they contend that "balanced growth" is needed in the sense of simultaneous efforts to promote agricultural and industrial development. A bibliography containing 51 references is appended.

Propositions

3.01 (1) A necessary condition of economic growth is a decline in the significance of the agricultural sector relative to the
3.02 industrial sector. (P. 590.)
Evidence: Historical analysis (several cases).

4.01

16K Schultz, Theodore W., "Investment in Human Capital," Amer. Econ. R., 51(1), March 1961: 1-18.

3.19 This article discusses investment in human capital, e.g.,
education, health and internal migration to take advantage of
6.16 opportunities for better employment. Schultz indicates why this
form of investment has been very little studied and makes suggestions regarding the nature of the subject. Finally, the author makes nine policy proposals related to investment in human capital.

Propositions

3.02 (1) The probability that a change will be made will be increased
if the individual perceives that he will have sufficient
3.15 time to profit from the new circumstances, i.e., his return
will make the investment advantageous. (P. 4.)
Evidence: Unsubstantiated assertion.

16L Goode, Richard B., "Adding to the Stock of Physical and Human Capital," Amer. Econ. R., 49(2), May 1959: 147-155.

3.19 Goode argues that investment in humans is as essential to
economic progress as is capital investment. Additional work is
6.16 a necessity to ascertain the exact nature of the relationship
between the two types of investment and also to determine how
investment might be raised.

Propositions

3.11 (1) The probability that an individual will innovate will be
increased with greater education. (Pp. 152-153.)
6.09 Evidence: Unsubstantiated assertion.

16M Nicholls, William H., "Research on Agriculture and Economic Development," American Econ. Rev., 1(2), May 1960: 629-635.

3.01 The author first emphasized the overpopulated countries, where the basic and extremely difficult problem of food capacity may
4.02 often demand solution as a precondition of economic development. He then surveys the results of his researches on the agricultural
7.231 problems of the underdeveloped American South, the policy implications of which have considerable relevance to the problems of much larger underdeveloped regions or countries: (1) Industrial-urban development offers the major hope for solving the problem of low agricultural productivity. (2) The more widely-dispersed such indistrial-urban development, the more generally can agricultural productivity be increased. (3) Public policy must provide for facilitating farm-labor and farm-capital mobility at rates far in excess of those which can be expected under complete laissez faire.

17A Mcquade, L. C., "The Development Corporation in Africa," Amer. J. Comp. Law, 10(3), Summer 1961: 188-204.

1.01 3.01 3.07 7.231 In Africa, economic development is second only to political independence as the dominant theme, and one technique used to galvanize the national economy is the "development Corporation". A typical African development corporation is basically a financial institutional arrangement usually sponsored by the government, though some of its capital, if not all, may come from private sources. It has extensive powers to loan money, guarantee loans, make equity investments, supply non-financial assistance, and other non-profit-making activities germane to economic development. It may itself engage in business helpful to the national economy. Ideally, the corporation supplements, without competing with or replacing, other financial institutions. The rise of such corporations is welcome to the private investor for it will encourage his potentially important role in the economies of less-developed countries. The charter, purposes, and powers of the Uganda Development Corporation are described and some of the functions of the Federal Loan Board of Nigeria, the Northern Region Development Board of Nigeria and the Ghana Agricultural Development Corporation outlines. The criteria for investment, the forms and terms for investment, non-investment activities, and the organization, ownership and control of the development corporation are explained and discussed. There is little doubt that such corporations in Africa will become of increasing importance to that country's economic development; the trend is unmistakable.

17B Schwelb, E., "The Republican Consiitution of Ghana," Amer. J. Comp. Law, 9(4), August 1960: 634-656.

1.014 7.18 The new Constitution came into effect in July 1960 and completed the transformation of Ghana from a British dependency to a sovereign, independent state. Ghana is now a unitary Republic and, although no provision is made with regard to Commonwealth membership, it is known that she wishes to remain a member. The idea of African unity finds strong expression in the new Constitution. The President now assures all executive power and acts in his own discretion without the obligation to follow advice: the system for his election encourages one powerful party and strict party discipline. The legislature is unicameral and cannot divest itself of any of its powers. Provisions are made for judicial review and for the establishment of "fundamentsl principles" for the guidance of the President, who possesses an absolute veto. Other sections deal with the powers of the National Assembly to tax and to raise armed forces, and with the legislative-executive relationship. The Ghana system is a Presidential regime sui generis clearly different to all other forms, with the special powers of the President giving the Constitution a strongly authoritarian character.

18A Douglas, D.W., "Structure and Advice: The Case of Kenya," Amer. J. Econ. Sociol., 24 (4), October 1965: 397-411.

3.02 The paper is a comparison and critique of a World Bank Mission
Report and a doctoral dissertation, both about Kenya. The former
3.03 analyzes primarily the European sector of the economy and the
overall problems of national budgeting and capital inflow. The
3.14 latter focuses on the small and handicapped capital accumulation
processes within the African sector. The author calls into
1.016 serious question the prescriptive thesis of both papers, which is
that the leverage of the capital of a group of abler individuals
who have already attained sustained economic growth under adversity
will pull forward the whole economy.

18B Feder, Ernest, "When is Land Reform a Land Reform? The Colombian Case," Amer. J. Econ. Sociol., 24 (2), April 1965: 113-134.

1.037 - The Alliance for Progress had placed great hppes on Colombia,
as a model for rapid economic growth and thorough-going reforms.
2.035 A good land reform law was passed in 1961 which established a
large land reform institution, but the program was very slow to
3.10 start, and there were no adequate or realistic plans for coping
with the problems of "injustice" in the rural sector, low
4.06 agricultural production and inadequate land use, rural poverty
and unemployment. At this point Colombia had not complied with
4.11 the basic requirements of the Alliance for Progress in presenting
effective economic development plans and implementing large-scale
4.17 reforms prior to receiving financial aid. The preparation of
development plans which involve the planning of structural changes
4.14 is complex and a task for which Latin American countries are now
acquiring experience.

18C Wichmann, Arthur A., "Burma: Agriculture, Population, and Buddhism," Amer. J. Econ. Sociol., 24 (1), January 1965: 71-83.

1.237 An examination of the national accounts data for Burma in-
dicates that a substantial degree of economic progress has been
3.05 made since independence in 1948, but per capita real income has
still not attained the pre-World War II level. (This is due to the
3.16 considerable amount of technical and financial assistance which
has been provided.) To the extent economic development is de-
3.17 pendent on imported items, adequate foreign exhcange earnings are
necessary if Burma is to finance her own economic development pro-
4.11 gram. Since some 70% of Burma's foreign exchange earnings are

5.112 derived from exports of rice and rice products, an exportable rice surplus seems essential if economic development goals are to be
5.16 attained. Estimates of internal rice needs, based on population growth trends and indicated per capita domestic rice requirements, compared with projected paddy acreage and yields, suggest that within a generation or less an exportable rice surplus may no longer exist. The advisability of population control measures, therefore, seems evident, though Buddhist philosophy constitutes an imposing obstacle to formulation and implementation of a population-control program.

18D Breit, William, "Is Capital Accumulation Compatible with Economic Progress and Stability?" Amer. J. Econ. Sociol., 23 (2), April 1964: 197-212.

3.01 Since the early nineteenth century economists have considered capital accumulation as the sine quo non of economic progress.
3.03 The concepts of "capital funds" and "progress" are often linked. The obsession with capital represents a form of neurosis which
3.05 might be called "capitalphrenia". A. Smith, D. Ricardo, and J. S. Mill were so concerned with the apotheosis of capital
3.11 accumulation because in their day businessmen had assumed an authoritarian position. In commercial societies, the power deriving from the ownership of funds is a decision-making power and can be employed by the owner to manipulate people and things. In a capitalist economy, the decision to invest or not is the crucial one. However, this overlooks the industrial activity which gives meaning to the investment decision. What T. Veblen called the "machined process" is forgotten. It is to our technological and scientific developments that we owe the great achievement of recent centuries. The accumulation of funds makes no creative contribution to the progress of society. It is not true that the inequality of income distribution is ideally calculated to promote economic growth. Indeed, such a view is incompatible with the continued expansion of a society still in the throes of industrial revolution.

Propositions

No propositions.

18E Schnore, Leo F., "Urbanization and Economic Development," Amer. J. Econ. Sociol.,23 (1), January 1964: 37-48.

3.01 The role of urbanization in the process of economic development
has been generally neglected as an empirical problem; sociologists
3.02 and demographers can make a vital contribution. There are three
main conceptual approaches to the process of urbanization used by
5.07 sociologists: (1) behavioral, (2) structural, (3) demographic.
(1) focuses on the conduct of individuals, (2) stresses the organi-
5.09 zation of communal or societal activities, and (3) emphasizes the
distribution of population, in space. A case is made for (3),
holding that it permits a number of important problems to be dealt
with from a quantitative standpoint; measurement possibilities
are reviewed in detail. Some needed demographic studies are out-
lined, including some in which structural considerations are para-
mount.

18F van der Kroef, Justus M., "Indonesia's Rice Economy: Problems and Prospects," Amer. J. Econ. Sociol., 22 (3), July 1963: 379-392.

1.023 In July 1961, President Sukarno announced Indonesian plans to
become a rice-surplus area. Currently, Indonesian food shortages
3.08 are among the world's most severe. Furthermore, increasing rice
production is impeded by three principal factors: (1) social and
3.11 cultural problems, i.e., the "anti-cash nexus", (2) technical
problems and (3) distributive and marketing problems. These
3.16 factors may not preclude Indonesia's becoming a rice exporter;
however, they represent very large obstacles which must be over-
4.11 come.

5.11

7.231

Propositions

5.112 (1) If traditional beliefs conflict with the logic of modern pro-
cesses, acceptance of these modern processes will be impeded
1.023 and may be precluded.
Evidence: Example (Indonesian peasants perception of rice cultivation).

1.023 (2) If an individual does not perceive that he will derive a
personal advantage from adapting his behavior to patterns
5.113 socially more desirable, then he will tend not to adapt his
behavior. This reaction is reinforced if the individual
perceives higher personal costs resulting from adaptation.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

18G White, Byron, "Puerto Rico—Partial Developmental Model," Amer. J. Econ. Sociol., 22 (4), October 1963: 539-542.

1.044 As income growth, structural changes, and social progress have
been rapid since 1948 in Puerto Rico, the island has been considered
3.01 as a developmental model for Latin America. A different view is
actually warranted, since Puerto Rico has no autonomy in external
3.02 affairs, limited internal control, and is to a large degree a
military base. Puerto Rican-United States links are unique.
3.07 Puerto Ricans, who pay no federal taxes, have free legal entry,
as United States citizens, into the mainland to look for work.
5.06 Most of the earnings from fomento plants flow to parent United
States corporations. Federal taxes on insular products are ear-
7.16 marked for Puerto Rico. Making it clear that the largely central-
ly-planned Commonwealth is only a partial model for sovereign
nations may gain greater Alliance for Progress support in Latin
America, especially among reformers who emphasize nationalism.

Propositions

No propositions.

18H Jaffe, A.J., "Agrarian Reform and Socio-Economic Change," Amer. J. Comp. Sociol., 19 (4), July 1960: 337-354.

1.025 Beginning with a review of Senior's Land Reform and Democracy,
the author then compares Senior's account of land reform in
1.043 La Laguna, Mexico, with similar reforms in Japan as reported by
Seiichi Tobata, An Introduction to Agriculture of Japan. Selected
4.10 materials bearing on changes in land tenure and agrarian reform
in other underdeveloped countries, are introduced. Since Senior's
4.14 volume is concerned with Mexico, Jaffe's brings to bear additional
materials which permit wider generalization (of Senior's observations) on the interrelationships of changes in land tenure,
5.07 agrarian reform, increases in agricultural production, and the
6.08 development of the non-agricultural sector, in underdeveloped
countries. It is concluded that mere changes in land tenure
alone will not necessarily bring about a higher level of living

for the farmers. Rather, agrarian reform (together with changes in land tenure, if necessary) is required. This may be described as a matrix of factors comprising: (1) the introduction of new scientific and technical methods, (2) the shifting of workers from agriculture to non-agriculture and thereby increasing output per worker, (3) the education of the farmers and teaching them to live and work efficiently in a modern market economy, (4) the provision by the government of educational aids together with dams, irrigation, marketing mechanisms, etc. Such agrarian reform can proceed only as the non-agricultural sector of the economy also develops; indeed, attempts to promote either sector alone will probably result in failure. Finally, it is noted that changes in land tenure alone will not reduce the already high rate of population growth which, in many countries, is impeding economic development. Only across-the-board economic development accompanied by social and cultural changes will reduce the rate of population growth.

Propositions

5.03 (1) If there are forces within a society agitating for change, a crisis situation may serve as the catalyst which moves the
5.13 society to a new state of affairs.
Evidence: Historical (land-reform in Mexico and Japan).

4.14 (2) If peasants were not traditionally involved in a democratic political process, then merely becoming land owners will not
7.13 immediately transform the peasants into staunch supporters of democracy.
Evidence: None given.

4.14 (3) If agricultural reform and social change are to occur, then land reform must precede. However, land reform in the absence
7.231 of other factors is not a sufficient cause and may result in a return to subsistence agriculture, e.g., Haiti.
7.232- Evidence: Unsupported.

18I Smythe, Hugh H., "Social Change in Africa," Amer. J. Econ. Sociol., 19 (2), January 1960: 193-206.

1.01 Though urbanism is not new in Africa, the technical revolution in manufacturing and commerce has led to the development of new
3.02 kinds of cities. In the traditional African pattern, the core of social organization was the extended family, and the philosophy
5.01 of life was based on the group rather than the individual; "in the

rising urban centers this mode of life is no longer possible." The "protective wall of the family and tribal life" is being broken down by nationalistic loyalties and responsibilities, giving rise to marginal men. The cities are becoming "great amorphous squalid" urban agglomerations, based on the needs of European trade, which lead to a market economy, labor migration, wage employment, and the development of capital resources, making it "possible for the exceptional individual to provide for his own needs without reliance on the assistance of others." An industrial wage-oriented group "of immense potential power" has been created; though still small in numbers, it represents a significant change. Families which have adapted to a money-wage economy must sever their connections with the countryside. A new middle class of businessmen, profesionals, and administrators has also emerged, forming a new elite which is replacing the old leadership of the traditional chiefs. A "broader and different concept of education" has led to "a more sophisticated mass population," the ramifications of which are evident in politics, industry, the civil service, and recreational activities. New values, centered around money, are demanded; new forms of crime are developing. New medical techniques are overcoming the old forces of popular check, giving rise to urban slums and their vices, as well as to demands for new uses of agricultural lands. The most meaningful and challenging change is that in the relations between Westerners and Africans, involving new constellations of power and new attitudes; "on the part of both the African and Westerner many legacies of the past still govern how they feel, how they think, how they act, often despite themselves." African leaders believe "that the nations now coming into being on their continent will represent a fusion of African culture and Western civilization."

Propositions

5.14 (1) If a member of a traditional society is acculturated to Western ways, then he tends to become a "marginal man," i.e., he is in a permanent state of crisis resulting from tension between the modern and the traditional.
Evidence: Assertions from secondary sources.

5.122 (2) If confronted by Western materialism, traditional values tend to errode. This process is dysfunctional to the continued functioning of traditional social organization.
Evidence: Unsupported.

18J van der Kroef, Justus M., "The Indonesian Entrepreneur: Images, Potentialities, and Problems," Amer. J. Econ. Sociol., 19 (4), July 1960: 413-425.

1.023 The Indonesian Republic envisages the development of an
economy encompassing both extensive collective controls and
3.14 private enterprise. Unfortunately, Indonesia lacks an environment
favorable to the development of an entrepreneurial class. Both
3.15 traditional Indonesian values and the negative effect of contact
with foreign enterpreneurs (especially Chinese and Dutch) creates
5.023 a reluctance to assume business or professional roles. Numerous
phenomena, such as the desire to enter the governmental bureaucracy,
5.122 the preference for speculation, a distrust of money capital and a
very low propensity to save, are related to this situation and
7.14 mitigate against economic development. Hopefully, in the future a
strong self-reliant entrepreneurial class will emerge.

7.231

Propositions

1.023 (1) If traditional values conflict with the values of a modern
institution, unfavorable experience with the modern institution
5.123 reinforces the traditional values and makes it more difficult
to accept the new values.
5.18 Evidence: Historical interpretation.

19A Cutright, P., "Political Structure, Economic Development, and National Social Security Programs," Am. J. Sociol., 70 (5), March 1965: 537-550.

3.02 A scale of national social security programmes is developed
and related to economic development, literary, urbanization, and
5.09 a political-representativeness index. The degree of social security
coverage of a nation's population is most powerfully correlated
7.04 with its level of economic development, but when economic develop-
ment is controlled for, the more representative governments intro-
7.232 duce programmes earlier than the less representative governments.
A separate analysis of the relationship between changes in politi-
cal representativeness and changes in social security legislation
found that new social security programmes were more likely to
follow positive than negative political change.

19B Clignet, R.P. and P. Foster, "Potential Elites in Ghana and the Ivory Coast," Am. J. Sociol., 70 (3), November 1964: 349-362.

1.014 This study examines patterns of social recruitment in two
highly selective systems of secondary education in two adjoining
1.019 African states with differing colonial and educational traditions.
Marked differentials occur between two groups of sampled students
6.04 of roughly equivalent academic status in the two areas. Ghanian
students are uniformly drawn from higher socioeconomic groups
6.05 than their Ivory Coast counterparts. However, in relation to
population characteristics the two systems appear to function in
7.02 a similar manner. Furthermore, both groups are characterized by a
considerable degree of uniformity concerning career aspirations,
expectations, and perceptions of future roles.

19C Coughenour, C. Milton, "The Rate of Technological Diffusion Among Locality Groups," Am. J. Sociol., 69 (4), Janaury 1964: 325-339.

1.06 The rate of diffusion for single innovations has been found to
vary among communities and other types of sociogeographic areas,
4.10 but whether an area manifests a characteristic rate of diffusion,
and, if so, to what factors it may be related, has not been
5.062 systematically investigated. Data obtained in personal interviews
with farm operators in twelve Kentucky localities in 1950, 1955,
5.15 and 1960 provide insight into these questions. It is found that
the relative pace of diffusion among localities for each of the
6.10 five recommended farm practices is quite similar, indicating the
existence of an underlying rate of diffusion for each locality.
6.16 A measure of relative locality diffusion rate is found to be most

closely related to the median educational level of farmers, median level of contact with communications media, and an index for localities of the integration of communication structures. The locality median scale of farming and measures of attitudes toward scientific farming, family visiting, and social participation are less closely related to average diffusion rate.

Propositions

1.06 (1) The probability that a technical innovation will be adopted
increases with: (1) rising socio-economic position, (2) edu-
3.11 cation, and (3) greater contact with media of communication.
(P. 338.)
5.062 Evidence: Sample survey of farmers in twelve Kentucky
localities taken in 1950, 1955, and 1960.
5.15
6.10
6.16

19D Bose, Santi P., "Peasant Values and Innovation in India," Am. J. Sociol., 67 (2), March 1962: 552-560.

1.021 In Redfield's model of the folk-urban continuum, the peasant
society is considered intermediate between the folk society and
4.182 the urban society. In such a society there are some persons who
have the value systems of an urban society. It was postulated
that people with folk value systems would resist change in agricultural techniques and those with urban value systems would
accept it. This was tested by interviewing 80 farm operators in
the Baraset region of West Bengal. Results support the hypothesis
that the value orientation of a people has a relation to technological change, and that people with tradition-oriented folk-type
values are more resistant to change than people with urban-oriented values.

19E Roy, Prodipto, "The Measurement of Assimilation: The Spokane Indian," Am. J. Sociol., 67 (2), March 1962: 541-551.

1.06 The model for the measurement of assimilation is broken down
into three social processes--acculturation, social integration,
5.062 and amalgamation. Comparison is made between a random sample
of Spokane Indians and a sample of whites residing in the same
5.14 community. Acculturation measured in terms of socio-economic

status variables--education, level of living, and occupation--showed that Indians have much lower status than whites. Social integration measures showed integration in the formal institutional systems, which are set up primarily for Indians, and cleavage in the voluntary organizations. Amalgamation--the percentage of white ancestry among Indians--inversely related to age and directly to education, level of living, and income.

Propositions

No propositions.

19F Loomis, C.P., and J.C. McKinney, "Systematic Differences between Latin American Communities of Family Farms and Large Estates," Am. J. Sociol., 61, March 1956: 404-412.

1.03
4.14
4.16
4.17

"The family-farm and large-estate communities considered here are in sharp contrast. Clear differentiation was also established by a group of judges who used a set of polar variables within the GEMEINSCHAFT-GESELLSCHAFT typology to describe strategic subject-object relationships within the two communities. Tentative steps are taken to specify certain basic differences in family-farm and large-estate communities, systems which have long been considered essentially different, especially in their respective power structures. These differences call into question the many unitary programs designed to initiate change without being adapted to these contrasting structures."

Propositions

No propositions.

20A Hess, R.L., and Loewenberg, G., "The Ethiopian No-party State: A Note on the Functions of Political Parties in Developing States," Amer. Pol. Sci. R., 58(4), December 1964: 947-950.

1.011 7.07 Political parties have emerged everywhere on the African continent, with the significant exception of Ethiopia. There a unique combination of historical factors and the political ability of Haile Selassie have given expression to a no-party state. Yet Ethiopia is committed to a policy of association with the new states of Africa and of economic and administrative, if not political, modernization. Elsewhere in Africa political modernization permits the mobilization of the masses by the political party for purposes of economic development. In Ethiopia the masses on the village level are still untouched by new political organizations and beyond the reach of political appeals. The question is raised how successfully other, traditional structures can perform such functions, and with what consequences. Some change has taken place, the traditional framework has undergone internal changes and has created its own small crops of presumably loyal but closely watched elites. But because the no-party state in Ethiopia is largely the personal instrument of the Emperor, the question is raised whether the sources of power of the Emperor can be transferred to a successor except through a new political organization. Suitable substitute structures are not easily found. Ethiopia's particular problems of modernization in the absence of political parties indicate the functions performed by political parties in developing states.

20B Taylor, P.B., Jr., "Interests and Institutional Dysfunction in Uruguay," Amer. Pol. Sci. R., 57(1), March 1963: 62-75.

1.342 7.12 7.18 Uruguay justifiably is considered to have one of the most democratic governments of Latin America. The basis was laid in the last century through the development of the periodically-renewed "Pact of the Parties". Under Jose Battle y Ordonez' control of the government, there was comparatively efficient social reformist government under one predominant party. Battle's successors since 1929 have emphasized coparticipation rather than responsible decision-making, so that the state has become overly sensitive to the demands of special interests. Analysis reveals that this has led to perversion of normal functions for many governmental institutions. The economy faces breakdown at a time when social dislocations acquire seriousness through leftist exacerbation. The system seems sufficiently rigid so that the Alliance for Progress may by unable to contribute usefully to the country's development.

20C Lemarchand, R., "The Limits of Self-Determination: The Case of the Katanga Secession," Amer. Pol. Sci. R., 56(2), June 1962: 404-416.

1.127 7.12 7.15 The decision of the United Nations Security Council to bring to an end the secession of the Katanga raises two important issues: (1) When does secession become inevitable? (2) When does it become desirable? Regional differences in the scale of economic development, and areal disparities in the numerical importance and economic status of the settler population of the Congo, have decisively encouraged the growth of separatist sentiment in the Katanga. Similarly, the outside support given by settler interests and metropolitan pressure groups to the cause of the Katangese separatists has reinforced the latter's belief that secession was not only desirable but feasible. Yet the reason why secession did not occur sooner than it did is mainly due to the Belgian government's willingness to honor its obligations toward the newly elected Congolese government. But even if we assume that secession was inevitable at a given point, its economic and political implications tend to suggest that, in this particular case, there was no justification for the so-called "genuine" Katangese to claim self-determination.

Propositions

1.127 5.062 7.12 7.22 (1) If the distribution of economic resources reinforces existing tensions among ethnic groups, then tribal antagonisms coincide with economic stratification. (P. 415)
Evidence: Case study; examination of economic distributions in Katanga.

1.127 7.16 (2) If an idea (i.e., secession of white settlers) is made politically and economically attractive to a native association, then the ideas of the latter tend to be identified with those of the former. (P. 415)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

1.127 7.16 (3) If an external stimulus makes an idea more attractive to the native advocates of that idea, then the chances for the success of that idea increase. (p. 415)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

20D Nieburg, H.L., "The Threat of Violence and Social Change," Amer. Pol. Sci. R., 56(4), December 1962: 865-873.

5.13 7.01 The threat of violence, and the occasional outbreak of real violence, are essential elements in peaceful social change, not only in international, but also in national communities.

7.12 Individuals and groups, no less than nations, exploit the threat as an everyday matter. This fact induces flexibility and stability in democratic institutions. Violence and the threat of violence, far from being meaningful only in international politics, are underlying, tacit, recognized, and omnipresent facts of domestic life, of which politics is sometimes only the shadowplay. It is the fact that instills dynamism to the structure and growth of the law, the settlement of disputes, the processes of accommodating interests, and that induces general respect for the verdict of the polls.

Propositions

5.13 (1) If the actual or potential use of violence is a guarantee of the opportunity for peaceful political or social change,
7.01 then a political system must adjust itself to the many threats of violence, domestic and international, if it is
7.12 to survive.
Evidence: Speculation.

20E Ashford, D.E., "Patterns of Group Development in a New Nation: Morocco," Amer. Pol. Sci. R., 55(2), June 1961: 321-332.

1.131 Although there is great interest in applying group analysis to the development of new nations, sufficient data are seldom
7.07 available. Using the returns from 337 questionnaires circulated among local officials of the Moroccan Istiqlal party, it is possible to follow the sequence of formation and relative importance of seven nationally organized groups. Dividing the country into three parts, corresponding roughly to three stages of social advancement, the study found that political organizations are established more rapidly in the less advanced parts of the country than are groups having more general social purposes. Adding several indicators of the success of the nationalist party, the author also found that the Istiqlal has had less success in sustaining its strength and appeal in the more retarded areas. The overall pattern of group development suggests that parties may have considerable initial advantage in a new nation as groups are formed, but that the populace may begin to lose interest and turn to more useful types of group activity as social progress is made.

Propositions

1.131 (1) As the social setting advances, there is a higher level of
5.063 group development. (P. 324.)

1.131 7.07 7.08 (2) As more groups are formed, political parties decrease in relative frequency. (P. 328.)

7.07 7.20 (3) As group development increases, political parties tend to increase contacts at the local level, to invigorate local leadership, and to react more strongly in advanced societal settings. (P. 329.)

7.07 7.08 (4) As group activity increases, a group may find it increasingly difficult to articulate the views and interests of their members. (P. 331.)

7.07 7.18 (5) If group concern is oriented particularly to national politics, then more specific and concrete goal achievements may be overlooked, resulting in disillusionment with national politics. (P. 332.)

Evidence: Country divided into three parts corresponding to levels of social development and questionnaires sent to local secretaries of the Istiqlal party; data obtained on the activity of 7 nationally organized groups.

20F Deutsch, Karl W., "Social Mobilization and Political Development," Amer. Pol. Sci. R., 55(3), September 1961: 493-514.

5.01 5.09 5.15 6.09 7.12 Social mobilization is the name given to an overall process of change, which affects large parts of the population of developing countries as they move from traditional to modern ways of life. Indications of this change are the shift from isolation in traditional folkways to significant exposure to any major aspect of modern life; from complete dependence on face-to-face communication to substantial exposure to mass media; from agricultural to non-agricultural occupation; from rural to urban residence; from illiteracy to literacy; and others. These shifts can be measured, in terms both of their levels and annual rates, by means of available statistics. They are assumed to be significantly correlated with each other, with the outcomes of processes of linguistic and cultural assimilation, with the changing range and volume of demands made upon governments, and thus with political stability. A general dynamic quantitative model of the process is presented, with assumed but realistic rates of change projected to 1960 and 1970, suggesting prospects of increasing political tensions in many developing countries, unless deliberate and timely political action is taken. An appendix presents actual data and rates of change for 19 countries, with results projected for 1945, 1955, 1960, and 1970.

Propositions

5.01 (1) If one form of social mobilization occurs, then it is likely to be followed by another. (For example, social mobilization, seen to be movement into market economy, would be followed by a rise in frequency of impersonal contacts.) (P. 494.)
Evidence: Speculation.

7.09 (2) If old social, economic, and psychological commitments are
broken down, then people become available for new patterns
7.13 of socialization and behavior. (P. 494.)
Evidence: Implication from Mannheim's definition of "fundamental democratization."

5.01 If social mobilization results in increased volume and range
7.09 of demands for government service and a widening scope of
7.13 politics and membership in a politically relevant strata
7.18 (i.e., all those who must be taken into account in politics),
then the capabilities of government are increased. (P. 501.)
Evidence: Speculation.

5.01 (3) If the size of the state increases with social mobilization,
then the preoccupation with internal affairs increases.
7.01 (P. 502.)
Evidence: Speculation.

3.05 (4) If the average per capita income increases, then the gap
between the poorest and the richest segments increases.
5.062 (P. 505.)
Evidence: Speculation; formation of a hypothetical model of a country undergoing rapid social mobilization.

20G Fitzgibbon, R.H., and K.F. Johnson, "Measurement of Latin American Political Change," Amer. Pol. Sci. R., 55(3), September 1961: 515-526.

1.03 This article presents findings in a fourth survey made by
the senior author among groups of specialists on Latin America
1.04 regarding the status of democratic development in the 20 Latin
American states. The surveys were made in 1945, 1950, 1955, and
7.01 1960; that in 1960 involved 30 respondents, including former
Assistant Secretaries of State, newspaper and magazine correspondents, academic person, and others. The states were evaluated

according to 15 criteria--economic, cultural, and political. An electronic computer was used in making some of the analyses. The four surveys consistently rated Uruguay as the most and Paraguay as the least democratic state in Latin America. The authors applied a chi-square formula to determination of relationships among criteria. Lines for further investigation are suggested.

Propositions

No propositions; deals with methodology.

20H Needler, M.C., "The Political Development of Mexico," Amer. Pol. Sci. R., 55(2), June 1961: 308-312.

1.043 7.07 7.11 The Mexican political system has evolved towards greater stability and higher consensus, as reflected in changes in political techniques and in the characteristic skills of Mexican presidents. A wide range of organized interests, especially those with fighting capabilities, have been incorporated into a single "official" party through being given stakes of varying types in a new status quo. The change in the basis of allocating benefits among party sectors from fighting potentialities to numbers has meant increasing dominancy by moderate "bourgeois" elements. One should not overlook the achievements of the one-party system in assuring peaceful succession and allowing for civil freedoms. However, it is probably a transitional form which, by succeeding in fostering political development, may make itself obsolete.

Propositions

No propositions.

20I Schachter, R., "Single-Party Systems in West Africa," Amer. Pol. Sci. R., 55(2), June 1961: 294-307.

1.01 7.02 7.07 The single-party systems of the eleven new states in West Africa are examined in relation to social structure and historical circumstances in which the parties emerged. The primary distinction is between "mass" and "patron" parties. It rests in the reply to the question: How are the national leaders related to the rest of the population, and on what groups and with what ideas and structures did they build their parties? This distinction is discussed in relation to local branch organization, size of membership, patterns of authority and party structure, as well as social composition, method and function. The fact that the educated élite are few in number and disproportionately distributed over a great variety of ethnic groups make integration the chief function of parties. "Mass" parties perform this function more efficiently, and are built by Africans out of the very liberating and egalitarian forces generally associated with democracy.

Propositions

7.03 7.07 7.13 (1) If political institutions (e.g., political parties) are nationalized before governments or the civil service, then parties serve as better guidelines to national politics than do formal institutions of government set up by the colonizers. (P. 294.)
Evidence: Case history of study of patron-mass parties in West Africa.

5.18 7.07 7.13 (2) If a political party provides a new social framework for people who are no longer rooted in a stable ethnic tradition, then they can serve as institutions of social integration. (P. 299.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

7.07 7.13 (3) If a mass party has been identified with the national community before independence, or if a party collects a following which exists within or cuts across ethnic lines, it may be useful in developing a wider sense of national community and in strengthening democratic forces. (Pp.301,303.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

20J Vatikiotis, P.J., "Dilemmas of Political Leadership in the Arab Middle East: The Case of the United Arab Republic," Amer. Pol. Sci. R., 55(1), March 1961: 103-111.

1.133 5.16 7.16 The use of traditional symbols by leaders of newly independent states to achieve consensus in their respective political communities is not unusual these days, but on the other hand, especially in Egypt, the military in power have claimed that they will reform their society along "secular" and "socialist, co-operative, democratic" lines. What role Islamic will tradition play in the forging of this new order? History, geography, and politics have made Egypt, the country accused by other Arabs of being least Arab, the center of Islamic consciousness and the leader of Arab nationalism. Or if Islam without Arabism has been possible, can there by Arabism without Islam? Is it possible to provide a practical meaning and content for Arabism without reviving old Islamic unity and power? On the other hand, do not Egyptian officers, by "modernizing" and "secularizing" the claims for political allegiance, risk undermining their own power?

Propositions

7.02 (1) If the traditional symbols for the maintenance of order can
be manipulated by leaders of newly independent states, then
7.16 they may be useful in achieving consensus in the political
community. (P. 103.)
Evidence: Speculation.

5.16 (2) If traditional religion can be linked to a political movement
in a country where that traditional religion creates a
7.13 communal and cultural identity among the masses, then it may
be used for political purposes and as a means of communication
with the masses. (P. 104.)
Evidence: Case study of UAR.

7.06 (3) If the army officer corps acquires technical and political
training by Western standards but maintains attachment to
5.112 the ethical beliefs of a traditional religion, then this
group is not an effective vehicle for arriving at goals for
a nation on the basis of a secular formula. (P. 107.)
Evidence: Speculation.

5.16 If a belief (e.g., Arabism) has social power but is advocated
by different leaders who express opposing interests, then its
7.02 political potency is dissipated. (P. 110)
Evidence: Speculation based on case study.

7.16

20K Wriggins, W.H., "Impediments to Unity in New Nations: The Case of Ceylon," Amer. Pol. Sci. R., 55(2), June 1961: 313-320.

1.232 Like other political societies in Asia, Latin America, and
Africa, Ceylon's is a plural society. Horizontal cleavages
5.062 divide ethnic groups from each other and vertical cleavages
separate socio-economic classes. Disunity grows after independence.
7.09 Efforts to revive cultural traditions underline historical
antagonisms; an expanding school system raises the level of
7.13 vernacular education; majority and minority communities hold
different conceptions of the ideal political community; limited
modernization provokes traditionalists to assert parochial,
vernacular values; economic development provides new areas of
discord; desires for greater equality challenge the position of

the westernized elite which hitherto had transcended communal differences. Representative politics is peculiarly difficult under such circumstances, since westernized political leaders must bridge the gap between themselves and the masses if they are to win political support, and divisive issues of language and racial affiliation often have the greatest political pay-off. The 1956 election in Ceylon and its aftermath demonstrate this complex pattern of social, economic, and political interaction.

Propositions

1.232 (1) If there are fissures within a social order (i.e., ethnic,
5.062 linguistic, religious), then the attempt at national con-
7.13 solidation is difficult. (P. 315.)
Evidence: Case history; speculation.

1.232 (2) If a society is horizontally stratified (i.e., by education,
5.062 language, culture), then the elites who are the leading
7.02 elements of the society may be alien to the masses and will
7.13 find their attempts at national consolidation difficult.
(P. 315.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

1.232 (3) If, following independence, the western ruler is no longer a
5.062 focus for unified antagonisms, then traditional differences
7.16 are exacerbated. (Pp. 319-320.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

1.232 (4) If a ruling elite is linguistically and culturally removed
7.02 from the masses, then appeals are made to communal and ethnic
7.13 traditions of the masses as a means of achieving mass
support. (P. 320.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

20L Lemarchand, R., "Selective Bibliographical Survey for the Study of Politics in the Former Belgian Congo," Amer. Pol. Sci. R., 54(3), September 1960: 715-728.

1.127 Recent developments in Belgian Africa have focused the
attention of political scientists on one area of Central Africa
7.01 which has hitherto remained relatively unexplored by English-
speaking social scientists. Many reasons may be invoked for
conducting a systematic survey of source material on the social,
economic and political aspects of the Congo area: the claims of

the native populations will continue to reflect the impact of a distinctive type of colonial administration. Moreover, long-range problems of political viability must be viewed against the background of traditional authority systems. In attempting to judge critically the contributions made by Belgian scholars, one cannot fail to be impressed by the magnitude of the efforts and the unevenness of the results. This is due to the highly legalistic treatment, the absence of a positive focus discernible in the study of traditional societies, and the underlying paternalistic assumptions reflected in the official or semi-official research endeavors.

Propositions

No propositions.

21A Putney, Snell and Gladys J. Putney, "Radical Innovation and Prestige," Amer. Sociol. Rev., 27 (4), August 1962: 548-551.

1.043 This is a revision of Barnett's theory on innovation in the
light of research conducted in a Mexican community. According
3.11 to Barnett, a reputation is an obligation to conform and it
permits little freedom in advocating novel ideas; also radical
3.14 departures must be advocated at the risk of prestige loss. A
questionnaire administered to all heads of households in this
5.062 community of 1,000, asked the respondents to name the "most
important people" in the village, the "real leaders", "their own
best friends", those people of whom they "most often sought advice",
and those whom they "most often visited". The analysis of the
data revealed the existence of a tightly knit clique of five men,
which stood at the apex of the prestige hierarchy. All of them
were also radical innovators in the matters of social life,
religion, literacy, etc. Although they had little or nothing to
do with economic innovations in the village, it would be inaccurate
to say that the prestige of the clique members had
"survived" their radical nonconformity. In fact, their prestige
actually derived from their reputation for innovating broadly
and radically. Those who were suffering prestige loss were the
prominent men who had upheld tradition most firmly. Barnett's
contention is probably not so much false as partial. It may be
generally applicable to social systems in equilibrium or disintegration,
but it is inappropriate and misleading when applied
to societies undergoing transformation.

Propositions

1.043 (1) If a society is undergoing transformation, then innovation
may be the basis of broadly based prestige. In fact, in a
3.11 transforming society leaders may have a "mandate to innovate"
if they wish to maintain their prestige positions. This
5.062 effect contrasts that in social systems in equilibrium or
disintegration.
Evidence: Case study.

22A Christ, R. E., "Go East, Young Man; Andean Farmers Find New Opportunities in Lowlands," Americas, 13(6), June 1961: 3-9.

1.03 Population pressure in Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, and Bolivia is focusing a migration from the cool uplands toward the hot lowlands
4.12 to the east. The article deals with the physical descriptions of this area, adjustments required of the migrants, and government
5.10 policy. Growth of urban areas and growing food requirements assure the evenuual settlement and exploitation of this area.

22B Delwart, L. O., "Land for Venezuela," Americas, 13(8), 1961: 25-30.

1.038 The renewed concern with agricultural problems in Venezuela culminated in the agrarian reform law of 1960. Only a little more
4.14 than 6% of the Gross National Product in 1959 originated from agriculture, a situation which partly reflects neglect of this sector in a high-cost economy, rich in foreign exchange. The portion of the land under crops is very small (1956 3%); an additional 3% is pasture and 17% in natural grazing area, so that 75% of the land is still unexploited. Maldistribution of land ownership reaches extreme proportions in Venezuela. The agrarian reform law of 1960 aims to improve the land tenure system, land distribution and to modernize the methods of production.

22C Goncalves De Souza, J., "Land For the Farmer; Problems of Agrarian Reform in Latin America," Americas, 12(8), August 1960: 9-14.

1.03 This is a discussion of land tenure in Latin America. Different types of land tenure create different types of problems of
4.14 production and distribution. Land reform programs must take into consideration the historical development of present land distribution, the lack of suitable farmland, and entrenched interests.

22D Rosenberg, H. M., "Teachers of Teachers; OAS Training Center in Venezuela Sets Off Educational Chain Reaction," Americas, 8(3), March 1956: 14-18.

1.038 This article describes the Inter-American Rural Normal School (now known as the Inter-American Rural Education Center), estab-
6.05 lished at Rubio, Venezuela, under the OAS Technical Cooperation Program to train rural normal school teachers and administrators
6.06 from Latin American countries.

6.08

23A Adams, R.N., "The Pattern of Development in Latin-America," Annals Amer. Acad. Pol. Soc. Sci., 360, July 1965: 1-10.

1.043 Economic development in the industrial nations of the North
was led by an always advancing technology. The society adjusted
3.02 by increments to advances, and an ideology of free enterprise
developed congruently. In the industrial revolution, the Latin-
5.06 American countries were an agrarian and mineral hinterland. Now
that industrialization, as such, is pressing on them, they cannot
7.231 adapt rapidly to the influx of complex technology. They must
reconstruct certain aspects of their society before the technology
can operate at all. This means that social inventions must precede the technological. Strong governments must take this responsibility, since they are the only agents that operate with legitimate authority throughout the nation state. To date, only Mexico seems to have initiated the major steps that may permit it to move from a nation of secondary development patterns to primary development.

23B Turnbull, C.M., "Tribalism and Social Evolution in Africa," Annals Amer. Acad. Pol. Soc. Sci., 354, July 1964: 22-32.

5.06 While tribal systems vary widely throughout Africa, there are
certain basic similarities. These similarities reveal the presence
5.12 in domestic, economic, political, and religious life of a flexibility that makes of the tribe a living, dynamic organism.
5.16 Religious consciousness dominates tribal thought and permeates
tribal life, giving rise to a living morality. An impartial exami-
7.22 nation of the details of tribal systems reveals the falsity of
many popular misconceptions, and, although it is not suggested that such systems can or should be deliberately perpetuated, it is suggested that there is within them much of very real value. Far from being opposed to change, or opposed to nationalism, they contain the very essence of the widest possible nationalism. Further, they are based on a moral sense which is rooted as deep as the sense of ancestry, the destruction of which opens the way to the rule of sheer expediency. The flexibility of tribal systems gives them enormous adaptive power, enabling them not only to accept change but to further it, assisting new nations to unity, not despite diversity, but through it.

Propositions

1.01 (1) Autocratic rule by a single tribal leader is inhibited by the
need to insure the representation of and delegation of
5.061 authority to lineage subgroupings. (Pp. 26-28.)
Evidence: Citation of African tribal cases.

7.22

1.01 (2) Since witchcraft and sorcery are traditional institutions
for dealing with the unknown, they tend to increase when a
5.14 primitive society is introduced to an alien culture. (P. 29.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.
5.16

23C Hill, F.F., "Scientific Manpower for the Less-Developed Countries," Annals Amer. Acad. Pol. Soc. Sci., 331, September 1960: 26-31.

3.173 "To stimulate agricultural growth through the application of
science is a key problem of economic development. Numerous
6.08 cultivators must be reached by--and must accept--integrated programs which include a range of services and commitments from technical advice to market assurances. Properly to aid cultivators requires enormous numbers of trained men and women who must essentially be local citizens rooted in their country's culture and problems. Even so, the United States can and should make an increased but more selective effort to help. The scope and complexity of the task, together with the need to reach cultivators with all essential services, recommend concentration in selected areas with long-term programs. The necessary emphasis upon the application of science makes educational institutions obvious instruments of this national policy, but they require long-term commitments with adequate financial help and a large amount of responsible freedom."

23D Johnson, S.E., "Potential Contribution of Agriculture to Economic Growth in Less-Developed Countries," Annals Amer. Acad. Pol. Soc. Sci., 331, September 1960: 52-57.

3.173 "Substantial betterment of conditions in the less-developed
countries is dependent upon both private and public action to
4.10 achieve rapid increases in output. Improved technology is the
key to higher output, but successful adoption requires additional
4.11 capital and the learning of new technical and management skills. Agriculture can become a leader in economic growth by providing labor-intensive employment for rapid increases in food production. Larger food supplies also will lessen the inflationary pressures resulting from the cnnstruction phase of a development program. With the help of technical advisors, combinations of improved technology can be adopted that will greatly increase production per acre with a small investment of capital in relation to the resulting output."

Propositions

4.10 (1) If the land tenure system in a developing country is such
that increases in crop productivity do not go to the farmer
4.11 himself, then innovations to increase output will tend not
to be accepted.
4.14 Evidence: Unsubstantiated generalization.

23E Kellogg, C.E., "Transfer of Basic Skills of Food Production," Annals Amer. Acad Pol. Soc. Sci., 331, September 1960: 32-38.

3.173 "Potentialities for more food in the underdeveloped countries
with better soil and water use range from small to exceedingly
5.06 large, depending, in the first instance, on the kind of soil and
what is known about it. The achievement of the potentialities is
6.08 a very complex and difficult problem. For success in most
places, several practices such as those for water control, fertilization, kind and varieties of crops grown, and plant protection must be changed at the same time if any of them are to give significant economic returns. Basic handicaps are a very low social status of cultivators in many countries and the lack of specific information requiring sound recommendations. Rarely can programs or practices be transferred from advanced countries of temperate regions to underdeveloped countries of the tropics or subtropics. Only basic principles and the skills to learn can be transferred."

Propositions

3.173 (1) The will of farmers in underdeveloped countries to attempt
to increase the yields of their fields by the application
4.10 of innovations is positively related to the amount of
information they have about the successful use of these innovations in other lands. (P. 33.)
Evidence: Unsubstantiated generalization.

6.08 (2) If basic farming principles and learning skills can be brought to underdeveloped countries, then they are likely to be more successfully applied than more sophisticated scientific methods. (P. 34.)
Evidence: Unsubstantiated generalization.

3.173 (3) If cultivators of underdeveloped countries have a low social
status, then this will probably hinder communications be-
5.062 tween them and those who would introduce means to increase
crop yield, and the agricultural sectors of the economy will
5.15 not develop. (P. 36.)
6.08 Evidence: Unsubstantiated generalization.

23F Smith, M.G., and J. Ackerman, "Contributions of Colleges of Agriculture in Making Human Capital Available in Foreign Economic Development," Annals Amer. Acad. Pol. Soc. Sci., 331, September 1960: 39-45.

3.173 "The United States agricultural colleges and extension
services need to take a key role in our foreign policy. The need
4.19 is great for trained people in foreign agricultural development.
Agricultural colleges are conducting special assistance projects,
6.082 training foreign students, and furnishing technical personnel.
This has been valuable, but it is not enough if we are to be successful in the economic cold war and the world ideological conflict. In our foreign assistance program, much more emphasis is needed on the development process, the problem-solving method, and long term programs. Consideration should be given to the cultural, psychologocal, institutional, social,and economic changes which must accompany rapid progress and economic growth. Our agricultural colleges need to strengthen their research and educational programs on managing and facilitating changes or adjustments to the rapid adoption of new technology."

Propositions

3.173 (1) If a technical assistance program for an underdeveloped
country is favored by widespread primary literacy, then
6.082 the probability of the program succeeding is increased. (P. 12.)
Evidence: Unsubstantiated generalization.

23G Comhaire, Jean L., "Economic Change and the Extended Family," Annals Amer. Acad. Pol. Soc. Sci., 305, 1956: 45-52.

3.02 This article deals with the role played by the family in the
economic development of underdeveloped countries. The effects of
5.061 the family on economic development are demonstrated by descriptions
of tribes from the Belgium Congo, Nigeria, Lagos, and the natives of some of the islands in the Pacific area. The family influences the manner in which the economic development of a country proceeds and in turn is itself influenced by changes in the economy.

Propositions

3.08 (1) If a money economy and urbanization are introduced into an
underdeveloped country, then the breakup of the joint family
5.061 is probable. (P. 45.)
Evidence: Historical materials.

5.09

3.10 (2) If the family system in an underdeveloped country is char-
acterized by mutual aid or the notion that one man's posses-
5.061 sions are family property, then steady employment and the
growth of a middle class will be inhibited. (Pp. 46-47.)
5.062 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

24A Bose, A. B., "Society, Economy and Change in a Desert Village," Annals Arid Zone, 1(1), December 1962: 1-15.

1.021 This is a study of social structure and change in the village
of Nakor, near Jodhpur, India, in the desert region of Rajasthan.
4.12 Data were procured through schedules, interviews, and observation,
on the basis of a random sample of the village population. A
6.04 brief historical background is delineated regarding ecological-
agricultural factors. Villagers persist in their adherence to caste practices. Kinship and land ties encourage restrictions on socio-economic mobility. There is evidence that the degree of fluidity is rising, and kinship, age, and sex determinants of status are now being modified by education. The traditional joint household is beginning to show signs of disintegration, but in households where grandparents take part in the training of children, the traditions hold. Illiteracy is widespread but attitudes are changing, and there are positive inclinations to provide elementary schooling. Twenty-three per cent of the land is not arable, and 62% is cultivated. Agriculture is the main source of earning and subsistence, but supplementary occupations are taken which follow traditional caste practices. Cultivation practices are also traditional, and there is resistance to new methods. Village organization according to old caste and kinship is an impediment to democratization of leadership.

24B Raheja, P. C., "Research and Development in the Indian Arid Zone," Annals Arid Zone, 15, March 1962: 7-12.

1.021

4.14

25A Versan, V., "Central and Local Government in Turkey," *A. Fac. Dr. Istanbul,* 9(15), 1960: 266-278.

1.033 The administrative machinery of Turkey operates at two major
levels, the national and the regional one. The President of the
7.18 Republic has no power to dissolve the parliament and his position is
rather representative. Next in the hierarchy of central administration
7.19 come the Council of Ministers and the ministries, and two other
organs: the Court of Accounts and the Council of State. This has
7.20 both judicial and consultative functions. Then for administrative
purposes Turkey is divided into 67 vilayets (counties) administered
7.21 according to the principles of decentralization and division of
functions. The vilayets are in turn divided into 500 kazas (districts),
100 nahiyesi (townships), 36.000 koys (villages). Every
vilayet is an administrative region for many matters of central concern,
and at the same time a municipal corporation with its own
affairs. The vali or governor is at the same time an agent of the
central government and a local officer. The koys are administered
by an elected Council of Elders, and the municipalities (beledyes),
by an elected Mayor, a Municipal Advisory Commission and a Municipal
Council.

26A Cohen, Ronald, "The Success that Failed: An Experimentation in Culture Change in Africa," Anthropologica, 3 (1), 1961: 21-36.

1.012 3.11 4.10 5.111 5.113 7.03 7.22 A description of the socio-economic conditions surrounding the introduction of a fertilizer in a district of Bornu Province, Nigeria, and an analysis of the social reasons for its non-acceptance. The Kanuri people are organized as a Muslim Emirate under British Colonial administration. The native political hierarchy is headed by the monarch, the Shehu, and his subrulers; the society is stratified according to various criteria, but the ruling aristocracy and the peasantry are the two major social class distinctions. The fertilizer was first introduced to Kanuri society without any thought of a plan to ensure its acceptance. The peasant cultivators used the product, sometimes improperly, and decided it was damaging or useless. In 1956, the administration made the fertilizer easily available, and made a great effort to instruct people as to its proper use. However, despite the fact that all who tried the fertilizer received at least a 10% increase in yield, the government was not able to ensure the acceptance of the fertilizer. Major reasons for rejection of the fertilizer are: (1) Failure of the administration to take into account negative attitudes created by previous, peasant experience. (2) Several factors relating to the power relationships in the society: the peasants, feeling that the fertilizer was useless, thought that the administration had its own motivation for advocating its use. In addition, the administration tried to get the peasants to accept the product willingly and did not rely on the traditional political authority to enforce acceptance. Without this appeal to authority the peasants felt the entire matter was an unimportant one. (3) The peasants considered the fertilizer to be a western technique, and therefore not adapted to Kanuri crops. Emphasis is again placed on the importance of understanding the social factors associated with the introduction of a new technique.

Propositions

3.11 3.14 (1) If a group of people have had adverse experiences with innovation in the past, the attitude engendered by the previous failure will carry over into the future and affect the acceptance of later innovations. (P. 30.)

Evidence: Case history of the Kanuri tribe.

3.11 (2) If people in a society approve of the country from which an
innovation originated, then it is probable that innovation
3.15 from that country will be accepted. (P. 31.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

3.15 (3) If a democratic approach is used to gain acceptance of an
innovation in an authoritarian society, then there is a
7.13 probability that people will consider the innovation trivial
and unimportant, since a democratic approach was used. (P. 31.)
Evidence: Same as in no, 1.

5.112 (4) If an innovation is stripped of its excess cultural characteristics, then it is probable that it will be accepted more
readily in another country. (P. 35.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

27A VanStone, J.S., "Notes on the Economy and Population Shifts of the Eskimos of Southampton Island," Anthro. Papers, 8(2), May, 1960: 81-88.

1.06 3.12 5.06 A brief account of the Island's history, population (including number of dwellings and birthplace of family heads), economic basis of village life, and Island and outside economic opportunities. Disintegration of the traditional economic base and the unstable nature of the new wage base is the cause of 'incomplete exploitation' of the area's natural resources, which could support a much larger population than presently exists.

Propositions

5.10 (1) If an underdeveloped area develops temporary sources of income, there is the probability that population shifts will occur and hamper the development of areas that could support a larger population. (P. 87.)
Evidence: Case study of Eskimo village.

27B Anderson, Robert T., "Acculturation and Indigenous Economy as Factors in Lapp Culture Change," Anthrop. Papers, 7(1), December 1958: 1-22.

1.06 5.023 5.14 Eric Solem credited the development of full-scale reindeer pastoralism with the precipitation and maintenance of the trend from a 'relatively communistic orientation' of Lapp culture to a more individualistic one. Lowie noted that the influence of infiltrating Scandinavians was probably equally important. Anderson shows that communalism exists as a vital part of Lapp tradition and economic changes are molded by this cooperative ethic. Conversely, though increased individualism resulted directly from economic changes, the economy always appears to have been adapted to a value of individualism. Acculturative factors, which did not result in change in basic industry, were limited to European-Lapp social relations and, in Lapp society, to a reinforcement of tendencies otherwise present. The change appears great because Solem overemphasized the degree of communalism present. Lapp history has not been that of a substitution of individualism for communalism, but a case of continuous dynamic interaction of mutually opposed, yet adapted social-cultural techniques of cooperation and separatism, offering a mechanism for incorporating and molding change.

Propositions

5.13 (1) If the social, legal, and political organization of small groups of people (neighbors) is similar, and if these groups do not compete with each other or otherwise come into conflict, there is the probability that an informal system of extradition and cooperation in the control of deviants may come into being. (P. 2.)

Evidence: Case study of Lapp culture.

5.10 (2) If the opportunity to leave one's place of birth is presented (such as migration to other lands), this may function to destroy the effectiveness of the original institutions of social control, e.g., councils.

Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

5.022 (3) If small, political-social units have informal systems of
extradition and other forms of inter-unit cooperation, then
5.14 there is a probability that this system of cooperation will
be destroyed by the imposition of the legal system of a
7.05 more powerful, advanced society. (P. 5.)

Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

3.03 (4) If one society dominates another, and if the members of the
dominated society are taxed heavily but equally, then it is
3.04 probable that no differences in wealth will occur in the
dominated society and no surplus capital will be developed.
Pp. 7-8.)

3.02 (5) If the means of producing a living in a society change, then
it is probable that changes will follow in the society's
5.062 class structure. (P. 9.)

Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

3.10 (6) If wages are above the sustenance level, then it is probable
that a country's social classes will be characterized by
5.062 movement of individuals up and down the social ladder. (P. 9)

Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

3.04 (7) If the members of a society which is characterized by communal behavior are forced to pay taxes as individuals by
5.06 a superior power, then it is probable that the communal character of the lesser society will break down and be
5.022 replaced by individualism. (P. 15.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

3.16 (8) If a country which does not have a variety of economic goods begins to trade with other countries, then it is likely that
5.122 the differential distribution of these diverse economic goods will contribute to the development of individualism. (P. 15.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

5.022 (9) If one society controls the economy of another society, then it is probable that the society which controls the other's
7.03 economy will control (at least) the legal-political system of the other. (P. 16.)
7.04 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.
7.05

28A Halpern, Joel M., "Yugoslav Peasant Society in Transition-Stability in Change," Anthrop. Qtrly., 36 (3), July 1963: 156-182.

1.06 As a result of the technological revolution, peasant sub-culture has become an anachronism. Yugoslavia is a multi-lingual and
5.06 national state, with six republics. In addition to language and religion, social structures and customary observances also vary.
5.09 Peasant-urbanite or village-town dichotomy is also not clearly definable. The government has clearly stated that it considers peas-
7.231 ant farming an anachronism to be eliminated as soon as possible, and tries to further collectivization by indirect subsidies to state farms, limitation of peasant holdings, and high taxes on private farming. Children of farmers are generally opposed to remaining in the village. Many workers live in the village and commute daily to the factory. During their period of employment many peasant workers have gained considerable skill and moved to the town. But labor-saving machinery is unknown in most parts of Rural Yugoslavia. The peasant commuter generally wishes to work and operate his small farm at the same time. In Slovenia, which has one of the highest standards of living, the transition from peasant to worker occurs in a more clear-cut fashion, even within the village. The concept of urbanization, implying increasing stress on the nuclear family, does not have partifular emphasis in this area. Change in the peasant culture is exemplified by its basic reformulation and the reorientation of the man/land relationship. Stability is evidenced in the use of kin ties in urbanization. For a number of reasons, it is possible that various types of kin ties in the village may become less functional, but that the Rural-Urban ties may be strengthened.

Propositions

7.231 (1) If government manipulates the prestige symbols of certain economic patterns which it desires to abolish, then it is
3.15 probable that the youth trained to perceive these occupations as undesirable will not enter them. (P. 160).
5.06 Evidence: Case history of Yugoslavian economic development.

(2) If government prohibits the buying of land and there are few other investment possibilities, then it is probable that people's styles of consumption will change. (P. 170).
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

28B Morrill, Warren T., "Socio-Cultural Adaptation in a West African Lebanese Community," Anthrop. Qtrly., 35 (4), October 1962: 143-157.

1.012 A study was conducted in Calabar, Nigeria, of a community of Maronite Christian Lebanese immigrants. The community has existed
5.14 since 1902, and has varied in size between two and 100+ persons. The maximum size was in 1945, and it declined to 36 in 1958. The
5.064 Lebanese, originally small-scale retail merchants, increased the size and scope of activities until World War II, and now concentrate on lending money, ownership of rental property, and management of transport facilities. Social identification has been with the African population, then, unsuccessfully, with the European population. Language, religion, and diet have shifted with the social identification of the community. The constantly decreasing size of the community due to emigration to other Nigerian towns has encouraged intermarriage within religiously proscribed degrees of consanguinity.

Propositions

5.064 (1) If a colonial government grants its colony independence when its previous dealings with the majority of the
5.14 country were through an alien minority, then it is probable that this minority will assume a marginal character and suffer cultural disintegration. (P. 156).
Evidence: Case history of Lebanese in Calabar, Nigeria.

5.062 (2) If there are marked socio-cultural differences between a ruling minority and a ruled majority in a
5.064 country, then there is a probability that a middleman class of aliens will develop. (pp. 149-150).
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

28C Lane, Gottfried O., and Martha B. Lang, "Problems of Social and Economic Change in Sukumaland, Tanganyika," Anthrop. Qtrly., 35 (2), April 1962: 86-100.

1.122 The Basukuma, a cattle herding and agricultural people inhabiting
the East Lake Province of Tanganyika, have readily accepted
4.16 the introduction of a cotton cooperative marketing federation, but
recently a structurally parallel organization for cattle has demonstrated
4.17 considerable lethargy. An attempt is made to show how
felt needs and a flexibility of social organization made for easy
4.181 acceptance of a cotton cooperative based on the same structure as
the traditional political hierarchy. In the organization of the
5.06 cattle cooperative's the same structural form was adopted; yet the
three attempts so far have been relatively unsuccessful. This is
5.18 considered due to the absence of felt needs for change, especially
since the advantages of a cattle cooperative had not been demonstrated,
as the benefits of cotton cooperative's have been, and
because cattle "ownership" involved fewer individuals. Secondly,
the relationship of cattle to the social structure, as culturally
valued objects, was different from cotton. Cattle were closely
integrated into the structure of social relationships in an intricate
network ramifying through kinship, marriage, and territorial
ties, and in case of famine and hardship were valued as "social
insurance." That is, the social relations involving cattle were
not of a cooperative, nor of a primarily economic, nature. It is
suggested that in the larger social system manifesting greater
cultural complexity, simple appelations as "open-closed" or
"flexible-rigid" are only applicable to specific segments and not
the total society, and that institution's can have parallel structures
and yet serve totally different functions.

Propositions

1.122 (1) If an economic institution such as a cooperative is set
up on a racial basis in a country where racial differences
4.16 are marked, then there is a probability that this will
contribute to its success or failure. (P. 90).
5.062 Evidence: Case history of the Basukuma tribe,
Tanganyika.

1.122 (2) If a new organization is needed to perform some function
in a developing country and it is made to resemble
4.16 a previously existing organization, then the probability
of the organization functioning efficiently will be increased.
5.18 (P. 93).
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.
5.063

1.122 (3) If an economic institution, such as a cooperative, performs
a function which the people feel is needed in terms of their
4.16 own values, then the probability of the cooperative performing
effectively is increased. (P. 95.)
5.122 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

1.122 (4) If marketing institutions are set up to deal with products
which the people perceive in non-economic terms, then the
4.07 probability that these marketing institutions will perform
badly in increased. (P. 97.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

1.122 (5) If people's definitions of economic goods include the premise
that these goods represent security or that these goods
3.15 have symbolic significance, then it is probable that the
market will not function efficiently. (P. 98.)
4.07 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.
5.122

1.122 (6) If cooperatives are set up in developing countries to deal
with products which are non-perishable or are capable of
4.16 reproducing themselves, then the probability of the
cooperative functioning successfully is reduced. (P. 99.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

29A Mayer, A.C., "Some Political Implications of Community Development in India," Archiv. Europ. Sociol., 4(1), 1963: 86-106.

1.021 A program was inaugurated in 1952 to raise the standard of
living of the rural people and aid the establishment of a demo-
5.08 cratic local government. The rural committee structure comprises
the Village Committees and the Central Committees, which provide
7.21 amenities from local taxes. The chairmen, often headmen, are key
figures in getting development grants; their main basis of politi-
5.062 cal support is the caste system. Allocation favours the larger
settlements, often headed by Committee chairmen's election, but
the power of rural leaders stems mainly from patronage and broker-
age. The case of India may be reflected in other newly independ-
ent countries.

29B Bailey, F.G., "Traditional Society and Representation: A Case Study in Orissa," Archiv. Europ. Sociol., 1 (1), 1960: 121-141.

5.06 This essay describes the relationship between politicians
in Orissa and the people whom they represent and govern. Demo-
7.19 graphic, cultural, and social factors affect the politician's
approach for his electorate. Orissa has a Legislative Assembly
7.22 of 140 members (MLA) elected from 101 constituencies. Fifty-four
members belong to scheduled tribes, or scheduled castes and occupy
reserved seats. The large area of constituencies and poor com-
munications make it important that a candidate should acquire
certain qualifications or reputation make use of traditional
media. The electors see their MLA not as a legislator, but as
their representative, who will intercede for them with the Adminis-
tration. This attitude is a legacy of the colonial past. Another
legacy of the past is the use made by the candidates of caste and
local loyalties. It might be argued that no matter how weak the
social base of democracy and no matter how confused the elections,
a government may yet be strong and efficient to raise the level of
production. But in India the economy is in an almost permanent
state of crisis. In examining in this case study the link between
the politicians and the people our problem was to ask whether
democracy in practice negates democratic intentions.

Propositions

No propositions.

30A Lamming, Norman, "Possibilities and Limitations of Co-operation in Underdeveloped Countries," Archiv. Int. Sociol. Coop., 5, January-June 1959: 3-20.

4.17 This article is a discussion of the approaches which should facilitate insight into the needs of cooperative movements in underdeveloped countries, and the technical problems which they must overcome. The identification, adaptation and invention, and application of techniques designed to facilitate effective cooperation should be the ultimate aim of investigation. Measures which would result in a systematization of our understanding of "problem-types" in different countries, of the nature of cooperative practices, and of the outcome of specific techniques and methods, are vital for the fostering of effective cooperation.

31A Iyer, R., "The Newly Independent Countries and the Problems Involved in the Creation of a Democratic State," Archiv. Rectts-Soz.-Philos., 47(4), 1961: 465-476.

7.11
7.16 Most of the new emerging States in Asia and Africa have certain features in common and are essentially transitional societies, heterogenous, underdeveloped, forward-looking and backward-looking, facing the classical political predicaments about freedom, authority, legitimacy and social justice. They tend to assume that time is on their side, intensely desire to preserve their independence at all cost and are more concerned with national freedom than with political democracy, with rapid development than with mere stability. Their crucial problem of democracy is to accelerate the speed and at the same time to stabilize the procedures of peaceful decision-making at all levels of the political system. This supposes, however, that the first and major difficulty has been overcome, i.e., that the new democratic State has been properly established and firmly set on the path of democratization in the transitional period. If they want to achieve this, the new emerging States must follow a specific course of action and take into consideration a series of factors, the impact of which is decisive on the development of democracy.

32A Weitz, R., "Family Farms Versus Large-Scale Farms in Rural Development," Artha Vijnana, 5(3), September 1963: 225-240.

1.234 The paper describes the emergent pattern of structure and organ-
ization of farm units in Israel. Its dominant forms of rural settle-
4.15 ment patterns are the kibbutz or collective settlement, and the
moshav or smallholders' co-operative. Rural planners in Israel
4.17 have attempted to combine production advantages of large-scale
administered farms with socio-economic advantages of family farms.
The characteristics of this "composite rural structure" are
described, and a case study is presented of one such settlement in
Southern Israel.

32B Pethe, Vasant P., "Spatial-Occupational Mobility Between Three Generations in Rural Households," Artha Vijnana, 4(3), September 1962: 253-262.

1.021 The paper is a study in geographical and occupational mobility
beteeen three generations in a rural community. The analysis is
4.17 based on data gathered in 1947-1950 by the Gokhale Institute, for a
sample of 3,114 heads of households from 70 villages of the districts
5.062 of Poona, Sholapur, Ahmednagar, Satara and Bijapur. The data
indicated that about 80 per cent of the households were geograph-
5.10 ically immobile. In the case of the remaining households, there
was a shift in place either at the point of the generation of the
father and/or that of the head. Among the factors leading to migration, the economic factor, i.e., consideration of livelihood, was the most important. As regards occupational mobility there was no change throughout the period in the case of 84% of the households. The rest recorded a change at one or both of the two points in the three generation chain. The study further showed that migration and occupational mobility were closely interlinked with each other.

Propositions

1.021 (1) The probability that individuals will accept change is increased
if they undergo change, i.e., successive changes loosen the grip
5.121 of tradition and resist to change. (P. 261.)

Evidence: Sample of 3,114 heads of households in 70 Indian villages. Data were collected on spatial and occupational mobility.

32C Bhattacharjee, J. P., "Underemployment Among Indian Farmers: An Analysis of its Nature and Extent Based on Data for Bihar," Artha Vijnana, 3(3), September 1961: 246-278.

1.021 The study is based on the farm management data collected from
two samples of farmers in the North and the South Plains regions of
4.07 Bihar. Following the approach of Rosenstein-Rodan, underemployment
on the farm has been measured in terms of the unutilized portion of
4.16 the available supply of self employed and family labor at the
present level of output and with the existing techniques of production. The total degree of underemployment has been estimated separately for each farm family through a man-power budgeting approach, and broken down into its seasonal, disguised removable (disguised unemployment), and disguised fractional components. The degree of total underemployment in 1957-1958 amounted to approximately 56% of the available supply of farm family labor, the seasonal underemployment amounting to 23% and 27% of the labor supply in the two samples under study. The percentage of disguised removable underemployment was 9 and 20 respectively in the two zones considering only male workers as removable; it rose to 15 and 23 when female workers were also treated as removable. The balance of the degree of total underemployment constituted disguised underemployment in terms of fractional units of manpower.

33A Amin, R. K., "Agricultural Taxation and Resource Mobilization," Artha Vikas, Vallabh Vidyanagar 1,1), 1965: 17-41.

1.021 A detailed examination is made of the proposition that agri-
culture in India is undertaxed and that the tax could be increased
4.04 to raise the growth rate of the community. Historically, agri-
culture has been taxed heavily in other countries, e.g., Japan, Britain, the United States, USSR, and Canada, but circumstances in these countries bear no comparison with those now obtaining in India. It is argued that the tax burden on the agricultural sector only appears low. In view of the deterioration in terms of trade and also in productivity per worker in agriculture over the last decade, with an average level of income near or below subsistence level, the case for increased taxation is rather weak. There has been some net transfer of resources into agriculture, but this transfer has not necessarily increased the income of farmers. It has mainly benefited the community at large through an increased supply of consumer goods. It resembles foreign aid in that is is absorbed in

the non-agricultural sector. The arguments that increased purchasing power of farmers would generate inflationary pressure, reduce the marketable surplus, and impede the transfer of labor to the industrial sector are discounted, and it is argued that the income effects are not being imparted from the farm to the non-farm sector. Owing to the block-circular structure of the Indian economy, per-worker productivity in agriculture must be increased without increasing the direct contribution of the farm sector to the non-farm sector. This will mean subsidising production in agriculture on similar lines to those in Western Europe and Japan after World War II.

33B Patel, H. M., "Rural Development and Panchayati Raj," Artha Vikas, Vallabh Vidyanagar, 1(1), 1965: 1-7.

1.021
7.21
An account is given of how the concept of Panchayati Raj emerged from the recommendations of the study team appointed by the Planning Commission, and an assessment of the experiment is made describing how far the existing system of administration has been replaced by elected and amateur administrators. The bureaucratic approach has continued and the situation has worsened because the scope of decisions taken for considerations other than those of merit has greatly increased. Administrative inefficiency has increased greatly. Panchayati Raj has so far given no indication at all of any ability to achieve what was expected of it in administration, in developmental activities or in realistic planning.

34A Parashar, R. K., "Community Development Program -- A Review," Asian Econ. Rev., 7(4), 1965: 489-513.

1.021 The growth and performance of the Community Development Program
in India is assessed for the last 10-12 years. The Program seems
5.08 to have had a break-through in changing the outlook and attitude of
the rural people but has been less successful in setting the tempo
5.11 of economic growth. This is because (1) it was never designed to
do so according to a time schedule; (2) the quality of leadership
5.12 was unsuitable and (3) it spread its resources and energies on a
huge and widely diversified program to change the outlook and the
way of living of four hundred million agrarian people. A six-point
priority program for agricultural development to making the Community
Development Program more effective is suggested.

34B George, P. T., "Land Reforms, Agricultural Production and Prices," Asian Econ. Rev., 7(1), 1964: 79-95.

1.021 An account is given of recent trends in agricultural produc-
tion, prices and Government price policies in relation to the extent
4.08 of the enforcement of land reforms. Clearly all three issues --
prices, production and land reforms -- are closely interrelated
4.11 and therefore require simultaneous solution.

4.14

7.231

34C Rajamani, A. N., "Tensions in Agricultural Development," Asian Econ. Rev., 7(1), 1964: 49-62.

5.13 Tensions and conflicts often arise during the process of agri-
cultural development because the village is a plural society
4.181 consisting of a number of primary communities, each thinking of its
own interests at the same time as -- or even before -- those of the
village. Institutions such as Panchayati, based on the village as
a unit, encounter difficultues for the same reason. Hence the
development schemes must be based on a plural and not a unitary
response. Even a reformulation of the agrarian structure breeds
tensions. Minimizing such tensions and their impact depends on how
successfully the community leaders can convince the public that some
social disequilibrium is an inevitable necessity leading only to
further progress and integrated socio-economic development in agri-
culture. An agricultural truce is advocated in the present period
of emergency.

34D Rajamani, A. N., "Agricultural-Nonagricultural Relative Tax Burden," Asian Econ. Rev., 6(1), November 1963: 56-73.

1.021
4.04
This study makes an appraisal of the nature of the present agricultural taxation system and its economic implications for the farmers. It is divided into four parts: (1) review of arguments for increase of farm taxation against land revenue and indirect taxation increase in recent years, (2) agricultural tax revenues of states under certain tax limitations, (3) examination of total tax burden, incident to agriculture as a sectoral economic occupation and to agriculturists, as a consumer group of articles within and without the agricultural sector, (4) findings correleting tax burdens with economic development. The analysis is supported by detailed time series, sectoral, and aggregative data. The author concludes that the slow progress of Indian agriculture may be the result of (among others) a regressive and inequitable fiscal policy. The prospects of increased agricultural growth in the near future are still a matter of speculation. The magnitude of socio-economic change, which ought to be brought about by unified government policy, relies largely upon just dispensation of development burdens and recognition of sectoral ability, motivated and conditioned by incentive oriented fiscal policy.

34E Rajamani, A. N., "Agricultural Holdings: Consolidation and Ceilings.," Asian Econ. Rev., 4(2), February 1962: 178-222.

1.021
4.14
The article examines the question of a ceiling on land holdings as a solution to the problem of uneconomic holdings in India. The author has studied the distribution of holdings and the extent of fragmentation of holdings, briefly reviewed the progress of implementation of consolidation program in different parts of the country and discussed the pros and cons of imposing ceilings on agricultural holdings. He has concluded that the case for ceilings is weak because (1) it does not provide much surplus land for distribution among the landless, and (2) in states like Madras it does not satisfy any egalitarian considerations. Moreover, the proposal raises a number of complicated issues such as level of ceilings, compensation, etc. Regarding the fixation of a floor to land holdings, the author feels that it should be fixed at five acres and implemented wherever possible with the available surplus lands.

34F Bansil, P. C., "Agricultural Potential in India," Asian Econ Rev., 3(3), May 1961: 243-262.

1.021
4.06
With a view to presenting a long-term view of Indian agriculture, the author has drawn up targets of per acre yield for important crops, to be achieved by the end of the sixth Plan (1980-1981).

4.11 In drawing up these targets, technological possibilities of agriculture are taken into consideration. Brief explanations, in terms of the present yields, acreage, etc., justifying the target set for each crop are also given. Besides foodgrains, the crops include potatoes, sugar-cane, cotton, jute, groundnuts, vegetables and fruits. Citing the example of the United States which showed an annual increase of 2% in agricultural production during the decade 1917-1921 and 1927-1931 with a stationary crop acreage and stationary or slightly declining acre yields, the author suggests that the targets formulated by him are not difficult of achievement.

34G Sonachalam, K. S., "Economics of Peasant and Tenant Farming," Asian Econ. Rev., 3(3), May 1961: 285-301.

1.021
4.11
4.14
4.16

Based on a case study, this article compares in quantitative terms the productivity per acre of lands under peasant and tenant farming and attempts to examine the various financial consequences that would follow farm a conversion of tenant farms into peasant farms. The study revealed significant differences in the two classes in respect of the percentage of earning members, cost of hired labor, owned bullock labor, owned manure, seed input, cost of maintenance of livestock, interest charges on productive loans and value of bullocks and implements. The farms business expenditure of the peasant farmers was 15.9% more than that of the tenant farmers, owing to the higher value of the inputs made by the farmer. The net income of peasant farmers exceeded that of the tenants by 6.3%. It is concluded on the basis of the study that a change in the legal status of tenants should be followed up by a generous supply of finance to them so as to increase their productivity.

34H Vaidyanathan, M., "Statistical Background of Rural Economic Surveys in India," Asisn Econ. Rev., 2(1), November 1959: 1-20.

1.021
4.02

An essentially statistical paper which deals with the problems facing any rural economic inquiry in India and attempts to define the fundamental concepts of such inquiry. It indicates the method of checking the data collected during the surveys and points out the role of ths statistician in the interpretation of the data. The paper briefly reviews the sampling methods adopted by some important surveys conducted in India such as the National Sample Survey, the Agricultural Labor Inquiry, the All-India Rural Credit Survey, the Bihar Survey by the National Council of Applied Economic Research and the Poona Urban Survey by the Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics, and in the light of the review, attempts to draw up an ideal rural economic survey for India.

35A Kao, C.H.C., "The Factor Contribution of Agriculture to Economic Development: A Study of Taiwan," Asian Survey, 5 (11), November 1965: 558-565.

1.028 This paper examines the factor contribution of agriculture in
Taiwan. The author concludes that the rice farmers have con-
3.16 tributed capital, and that the agricultural sector as a whole has
contributed labor. Foreign credits were increased because farm
4.03 exports grew despite a rapidly growing population.

4.09

35B Narain, I., "The Concept of Panchayati Raj and its Institutional Implications in India," Asian Survey, 5 (9), September 1965: 456-473.

1.021 In this article Panchayati Raj is examined both normatively
and empirically. First, three normative and three empirical
7.21 conceptions of Panchayati Raj are described. Second, some main
patterns of institutional development are outlined. Finally,
some questions regarding appropriate institutional development in
the future are posited.

35C Narain, I., "Democratic Decentralization and Rural Leadership in India: The Rajasthan Experiment," Asian Survey, 4 (8), August 1964: 1013-1022.

1.021 This article describes the history of Panchayati Raj in the
state of Rajasthan; two phases are identified, the first from 1959
7.02 to 1962 and the second to 1964. Although seemingly not well
suited for democratic decentralization, the project is quite
7.21 successful.

Propositions

1.021 (1) The probability of social change will be decreased if tradit-
ional beliefs are strongly held. (P. 1014.)
5.122 Evidence: Unsubstantiated.

35D Sirsikar, V.M., "Leadership Patterns in Rural Maharashtra," Asian Survey, 4 (7), July 1964: 929-939.

1.021 The Panchayati Raj, or democratic decentralization introduced in Maharashtra in 1962, shows its success is mainly dependent
5.08 on the quality of leadership. The socio-economic background reveals predominantly middle-age and Maratha caste leaders. Agri-
7.21 culturists for the main part, they belong mostly to lower income groups. The political background reveals the importance of certain individuals and party support. The leaders' political aspirations go to the social problems such as casteism, but mainly to the economic problems like unemployment. The ranking of national leaders gives some surprising results, but success of Panchayati Raj makes little doubt to most of the local leaders.

Propositions

No propositions.

35E Ayal, E.B., "Thailand's Six Year National Economic Development Plan," Asian Survey, 1 (11), January 1962: 33-43.

1.027 This article discusses the major provisions of Thailand's development plan covering the years 1961-1966. Major provisions
3.07 of the plan are outlined, and its underlying philosophy is discussed as is the outlook for the future.

35F Soemardjan, S., "Land Reform in Indonesia," Asian Survey, 1, February 1962: 23-30.

1.023 The author describes the basic pattern of Indonesian land reform since 1945. The Basic Agrarian Act, the Land Use Act,
4.14 and the Sharecropping Act are all discussed.

35G Hitchcock, John T., "A Nepalese Hill Village and Indian Employment," Asian Survey, 1 (9), November 1961: 15-20.

1.243 An important aspect of the relationship between India and Central Nepal is the close connection arising from the stringen-
4.09 cies of hill agriculture on the one hand and the cash value of Indian employment opportunities on the other. The present article examines some of the ways that employment in India (including service in the British army recruited in India) affects the

economy of a hill village. The data were obtained during residence in the village of Banyan Hill in the late winter and spring of 1961. The financial difficulties of a number of farms in a village that is representative of many other Mahar villages in Central Nepal indicate that serious hardship would result if opportunities for work outside Nepal did not exist. If for any reason these opportunities for work were withdrawn, many farmers would become landless labourers. In present circumstances foreclosure is very frequently held in abeyance because the creditor forsees the possibility of Indian employment for sons, or even for the father, and is willing to wait and take his substantial profit in cash rather than in land.

Propositions

No propositions

35H Mayer, A.C., Rural Leaders and the Indian General Election," Asian Survey, 1 (8), October 1961: 23-29.

1.021 This article discusses the factors upon which power is based at the local level. Mayer's study is based on observation of a
7.02 single rural constituency with an electorate of 89,000. The uneasy partnership of urban and rural political machines is des-
7.21 cribed.

35I Regmi, M.C., "Recent Land Reform Programs in Nepal," Asian Survey, 1 (7), September 1961: 32-37.

1.243 Regmi describes the history of Nepalese land reform since the revolution of 1951. The author believes that there is now a
4.14 heightened understanding of the need for land reform.

36A Hancock, W.K., "Boers and Britons in South African History 1900-1914," Austral. J. Polit. Hist., 9(1), May 1963: 15-26.

1.120 5.06 5.064 7.12 South African politics today might be defined as a debate between different sections of the white people about what to do with the blacks. Perhaps the day may come when they will be defineable as a debate between different sections of the black people about what to do with the whites. But in the early decades of this century, politics were predominantly a debate among the Boers about their relations with the British, and a debate among the British about their relations with the Boers. This is an introduction to some of those early protagonists.

Propositions

No propositions.

36B Singhal, D.P., "Some consequences of nationalism in India," Austral. J. Polit. Hist., 7(2), November 1961: 214-231.

1.021 7.16 The philosophy behind Indian nationalism grew out of India's history and tradition, and the essential character of this tradition has been its resilience and receptivity. It has incorporated elements of value regardless of the source from which they have come. Even nationalism reflected the complex and composite character of Indian culture. Its assimilative character and its adaptability rendered it a very effective instrument to meet almost any situation.

Propositions

5.062 5.064 7.12 (1) If a territory is characterized by a rigid caste system which adversely affects minorities, then it is probable that when the traditional institutions of social control decline, the minorities will demand political and territorial separation from the larger ethnic group. (P. 220.)
Evidence: Historical analysis of nationalism in India.

36C Benda, H.J., "Non-Western Intelligentsias as Political Elites," Austral. J. Polit. Hist., 6(2), November 1960: 205-128.

5.06 For some time non-Western intelligentsias may be expected to retain their virtual monopoly of political power. To a large
7.02 extent this continuity seems to be assured by the fact that the national polities over which they rule are of recent date, and, indeed, of the intelligentsias' own making. Essentially, these are modern governmental edifices superimposed on societies which, as yet, do not nourish them by established channels of political communication. The political process in non-Western societies is thus, to a far greater extent than is true of most Western societies, a superstructure without viable underpinning. Political changes are likely to take place within these élites rather than to affect their predominance as ruling classes.

Propositions

5.062 (1) If a college-educated people in developing countries show a pronounced tendency to enter such fields as the humanities
5.112 and law, then it is probable that this tendency is related to the traditional goal attainment values of these countries. (P. 210.)
Evidence: Unsubstantiated generalization.

5.062 (2) When the college-educated élite in a developing country is humanistically oriented and cannot be adequately absorbed by
7.02 the social, economic, and political systems, there is a probability that the society will be characterized by
7.12 political instability.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

37A Legge, J.D., "Indonesia after West Irian," Austral. Outlook, 17(1), April 1963: 5-20.

1.023 Indonesian politics in general have a continuous agitational
character. The buildup of appropriate emotional supports through
7.16 speeches and other forms of propaganda, the manipulation of
symbols of national unity, and the development of doctrines such
as that of unfinished revolution or of confrontation with imperialism are built-in features of the system. The Borneo question does fit into this picture. But even if there should be an element of this kind in the anti-Malaysia campaign, it is not the whole story. It certainly would not at the moment constitute a dangerous expansionism, but would be merely part of the facade of Indonesian politics, a posture rather than a policy, irritating and sometimes alarming to Indonesia's neighbors, but no more than that.

Propositions

5.064 (1) If the majority of natives in a country from which a colonizing power has just left feel economically backward in
5.13 relation to a minority group, then it is probable that
internal conflict will develop. (P. 10.)
Evidence: Unsubstantiated generalization.

7.07 (2) If ideological parties pursue moderate policies and promote
nationalism, then there is a probability that they will grow
7.16 in size. (P. 15.)
Evidence: Case history of the communist party of Indonesia.

37B Shand, R.T., "Some Obstacles to the Economic Development of Papua-New Guinea," Austral. Outlook, 17(3), December 1963: 306-316.

1.051 In these years leading up to independence for Papua-New
Guinea much advertisement is being given to programmes for accele-
3.02 rating progress in the political and social spheres. The need is
equally urgent for a fast rate of expansion in the economy if
7.231 independence is to become a reality in an economic sense. Yet,
amid signs of advancement in other spheres, there is good reason for believing that the fate of economic expansion is slowing down. The expansion of one of the two fastest-growing agricultural industries has been checked and the future of the other had become uncertain. There are long-range prospects for other commodities, but they are barely off the drawing board as yet. Experience with coffee and cocoa should serve as a warning of the urgent need to

promote other profitable enterprises both to strengthen and stabilize the economy through diversification, and to raise territorial output. In the absence of other generators of economic growth, the burden of development has fallen on Government expenditures, but the design and allocations in the budget are inadequate for meeting such responsibility at present. If an adequate rate of economic expansion is to be sustained, firm and special measures must be introduced.

Propositions

3.02 5.023 (1) If people in underdeveloped countries are exposed to the material goods of advanced countries, then there is a probability that this exposure will act as an incentive for economic development. (P. 307.)

Evidence: Historical analysis of influence of foreigners on the development of Papuan-New Guinean consumer wants and economic development.

3.03 (2) If the future political status of an underdeveloped country is in doubt, then there is a probability that investable funds will leave the country and economic development will be hindered. (P. 309.)

Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

37C Burns, C., "Indian Politics and the Third General Election," Austral. Outlook, 16(2), August 1962: 175-187.

1.021 7.07 7.09 There are no obvious parallels for the political system of India's prismatic society. The framework is formally representative and democratic. The system is dominated by a single party with an apparent propensity for institutional self-destruction. Political relationships are highly personalized; based on caste, communal, or dynastic loyalties. In the verbal tradition of India's culture, slogans substitute for policies. Electioneering consists of private deals with village, caste, and communal opinion leaders. The model, if one is to be found, may exist in Weber's distinction of the three societies--the traditional, the charismatic, and the legal. The distinctive quality (and paradox) of Indian politics lies in the fact that these three societies co-exist in a competition that is comparatively peaceful.

Propositions

No propositions.

37D Fisk, E. K., "Rural Development Problems in Malay," Austral. Outlook, 16(3), 1962: 246-259.

1.029 The author states that the advanced sector of the rural
economy of Malaya is owned and managed mainly by foreigners, the
4.11 backward sector being primarily Malayan. Statistical data show
that, despite the general prosperity of the Malyan economy, the
4.14 productivity trend in the backward peasant sector has been down-
wards. Consideration is given to ways of increasing the per
capita income of small farmers. An increase in paddy production
would contribute little; an increase in rubber production on
larger farms (of about four hectares)seems not to be feasible,
since some 10,000 new families have to be absorbed each year. The
smallholder living on 1.2-1.6 hectares of low yielding rubber
cannot afford to replant, and this stimulates the process of land
aggregation by wealthy landlords. A system must be found bringing
an estate-like efficiency to the small farmer, either by state-
owned farms on a profit sharing basis, or by cooperatives.

Propositions

1.029 (1) The probability of economic development will be reduced if
traditional values oppose rational economic behavior. (P.259.)
3.02 Evidence: Example of fragmentation of Malayan farm
land because of inheritance under Islamic law.

5.112

37E. Hasluck, P., "The Economic Development of Papua and New Guinea," Austral. Outlook, 16(1), April 1962: 5-25.

1.051 It is possible to peddle political dreams and fantasies of
early independence, but the economic reality is that Papua and
3.02 New Guinea is a dependent Territory and will continue to be
dependent on someone for very many years to come. That is an in-
3.12 escapable fact, and any planning or prophecy that ignores it is
not only silly, but is against the interests of the people, and
an obstacle to the advancement of their welfare.

Propositions

1.051 (1) If an underdeveloped country is suitable for agriculture
(plantation), then it is likely that natives can develop
4.11 these plantations more cheaply than foreigners. (P. 16.)
Evidence: Generalization from economic development
4.14 studies of Papua and New Guinea.

37F Lynch, C.J., "Constitutional Developments in Papua and New Guinea, 1960-61.," Austral. Outlook, 15(2), August 1961: 117-140.

1.051 Five major constitutional changes have been effected in Papua and New Guinea recently. The first major reform has been
7.02 the reconstitution of the Legislative Council. The greater part of public interest has centered on it. The second major point is
7.04 the establishment of a special system of indirect election of specifically native members. The third major reform is the in-
7.05 creasing status and power given to the Legislative Council. The fourth major change is the abolition of the totally official Executive Council in favor of a smaller but politically more representative Administrator's Council. Finally, the position of the Administrator of the Territory is being regarded rather in the light of that of the most senior official than as a quasi-gubernatorial one.

Propositions

No propositions.

37G Hastings, P., "New Guinea--East and West," Austral. Outlook, 14 (2), August 1960: 147-156.

1.051 It is very apparent that Australian official thinking on New Guinea finds itself in a quandary. On the one hand, it anticipates
7.15 that the processes of self determination are speeding up. On the other hand, it remains resolutely opposed to anticipating or guiding the ultimate shape and course of independence. There is, of course, a very understandable reluctance on the part of the Australian government to commit itself to any New Guinea policy which will antagonize Indonesia. A firm statement that Australia considered East New Guinea's destiny to be linked with that of West New Guinea and overt steps to promote political union of the two areas would be bound to provoke Indonesian anger and hostility, even though the Joint Agreement has already discreetly indicated the possibility of such a union. Nevertheless to leave the Dutch to pursue their experiment on a go-it-alone basis and a refusal to entertain the very real political and economic advantages of union may constitute in the long run an even graver risk.

Propositions

No propositions.

37H Rao, V.K.R.V., "Freedom and Development: The Challenge, with Special Reference to India," Austral. Outlook, 14(2), August 1960: 117-135.

1.021 While international aid is both crucial and important, the
major determinant of India's economic growth will be the quality,
3.17 discipline, and dedication of Indian leadership. In the last
analysis, the Indian challenge of reconciling economic development
with democratic freedom can only be answered on Indian soil with
Indian resources by the efforts of the Indian people. Only time
will tell whether India can do it, but there are many devout
Indians who believe faith can move mountains.

Propositions

1.021 (1) The probability that wealth will be invested or re-invested
in industry varies directly with profit and inversely with
3.03 wages. (P. 121.)
Evidence: Historical analysis of India's economic development.

3.03 (2) If a developing country has difficulty in promoting the
growth of industry because of low profits, then there is a
3.04 probability that this capital will be formed by taxing and
raising rents of farmers. (P. 126.)
Evidence: Historical analysis of the growth of Japan's industry.

7.16 (3) There is a high probability that the extension of democratic freedoms to the common man will follow economic take-off rather than precede it. (P. 128.)
Evidence: Historical analysis of Japan, Germany, and France.

5.062 (4) If the top strata of a society do not believe in saving or
investing as a way to promote the growth of capital, then
3.03 government policies of enforced savings will probably not be
accepted by the lower strata and accumulation of capital
will be inhibited. (P. 134.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

37I Wolfsohn, H., "Some Problems of Indian Trade Unions," Austral. Outlook, 14(2), August 1960: 173-181.

1.021 It would be hazardous to forecast the future development of
Indian trade unionism. While the scope for political control must
3.10 remain considerable, the workers' political loyalty to the parties
with which their unions are affiliated remains uncertain. High
7.08 union officials and political leaders are agreed that the organizational ties between the various national federations and local unions are weak in the extreme. The size of the country, the diversity of languages spoken, poverty, and lack of travel and communications confine the workers' interests and activities to local levels. Even Communists admitted that the majority of their union supporters did not vote for the Party in elections. They were, on the other hand, readily prepared to support militant action provided that the issues had been explained to them in a strictly local context. If this is true, it does not necessarily mean that Indian workers have reached the sophisticated stage when they are prepared to employ Communists in industrial issues while remaining firmly attached to the democratic ideals of the Congress Party.

Propositions

1.021 (1) If the members of trade unions in developing countries cling
to traditional outlooks, then there is a probability that
3.10 the unions will be primarily concerned with practical day-
to-day affairs. (P. 173.)
5.112 Evidence: Historical analysis of the development and
functions of trade unions in India.
7.08

3.10 (2) If the workers in developing countries continue to hold their
traditional outlooks, then it is likely that the country
1.021 will be afflicted with the problem of industrial strikes. (P.175)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

1.021 (3) If the labor force of an industrializing country is character-
ized by a rural background, then there is a probability that
3.10 an exploiting class or group will form to serve as inter-
mediaries between labor and management. (P. 176.)
5.062 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

5.09 (4) If rural labor is being exploited in the industrial city,
then there is a probability that this can be reduced by the
7.231 use of government employment offices. (P. 176.)
3.10 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

1.021
1.021 (5) If industrial workers are characterized by rural backgrounds
and traditional outlooks, then the probability of their
3.10 supporting political parties is minimal. (P. 180.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

7.07

38A Hindley, D., "The Political Situation in Indonesia," Austral. Qtrly., 35 (1), March 1963: 7-16.

1.023 That the predictable political situation in Indonesia is
relatively stable does not mean that it is static. Sukarno
7.11 and the army leaders jostle for preference; army officers
manceuvre among themsleves for control of important positions,
7.02 while the army's preponderance within the armed forces is
diminished by the current enlarging and re-equipping of the navy
7.06 and air force; the political parties press for a greater role;
and the Communist leaders work to build an organization capable
7.07 of seizing power. But both Sukarno and the army are concerned
to maintain "guided democracy". They are therefore careful to
prevent the political parties from developing independent bases
of power.

Propositions

1.023 (1) In developing countries where small parties are held in
check through an alliance between the rulers and the army,
7.02 an effective means of holding the army in check would be
for the rulers to strengthen the air force and navy as a
7.06 counterbalance to the army. (P. 16.)
Evidence: Case history of Indonesia.

7.07

38B Downs, I., "Freedom of Choice for New Guinea," Austral.Qtrly., 33 (4), December 1961: 23-30.

1.051 The task of the Australian Administration in Papua-New
Guinea to develop the country, bring the inhabitants to a stage
7.03 where they can adequately determine the course of their own
political future and provide their own government with reasonable
7.11 efficiency is studendous. As if this were not enough, it is now
clear that the task must be accomplished within a time-table to be
set by those who are irrevocably biased by anti-colonial dogma and
less concerned with sound accomplishment than they are with
early Australian withdrawal.

Propositions

5.123 (1) Traditional attitudes of the people toward leaders in under-
developed countries influence the speed at which these
7.11 countries acquire independence and stable social control.
(P. 25.)
Evidence: Author analyzes problems of New Guinea's
independence.

7.03 (2) The money of a colonizing state can be used more effectively
in an underdeveloped territory by withdrawing large numbers
7.11 of the mother country's officials and replacing these with
natives. (P. 28.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

38C Tregonning, K.G., "Malaya, 1959," Austral. Qtrly., 32 (2), June 1960: 38-47.

1.029 As an Islamic Southeast Asian country that has been actively
fighting Communism, Malaya is able to tell its neighbors far
7.15 better than Australia of the menace of Communist infiltration and
the danger it represents to independence. Indeed, in his visits
7.16 to Cambodia, Thailand, the Philippines and Indonesia, the Malayan
Prime Minister has been doing just that, and in so doing has been
working most effectively in Australia's best interests. It is
extremely old fashioned to think that a haphazard gathering of
suspect Europeans can defend Southeast Asia, for politically the
European has finished in Asia, and SEATO is steadily becoming
increasingly anachronistic; unfortunately, it is also restraining
the countries of this region from coming together in any similar
alliance.

Propositions

7.12 (1) If a country is in a state of conflict with an internal force
or power when its constitution is being developed, the
7.15 constitution will tend to be of an authoritarian character.
(P. 39.)
7.16 Evidence: Author describes and analyzes the Malayan
constitution and the reason for its character.

5.064 (2) If a country has a minority that has a tendency to be receptive to the extreme left (communists), their likelihood of
7.09 embracing that ideology is considerably lessened if during an
election other far left groups gain power. (Pp. 45-46.)
7.16 Evidence: Election returns.

38D West, F., "Background to the Fijian Riots," Austral. Qtrly., 32 (1), March 1960: 46-53.

1.052 There can be no doubt that the troubles in Suva in December, 1959, reflect a deep-seated economic complaint, but it is also
7.02 clear that they reflect only the reaction of a small and relatively insignificant group of Fijians under the leadership of men like
7.12 Mohamed Torah, a Fijian convert to Islam and the colony's only avowed Communist who is President of the Wholesale and Retail
7.22 General Workers Unions of which Mr. James Anthony, a part-European, is the Secretary. These men represent a new and untraditional kind of leadership which as yet only affects those relatively few Fijian wage laborers. The great majority of Fijians still live in their villages under their chiefs, the traditional leaders and the benevolent paternalism of the Fijian Administration. To the bulk of Fijians the economic situation of the colony is not directly relevant. They can in fact live without much difficulty on the produce of their gardens, the rents of land leased to Indians, and the sale of copra or bananas. The basis of life is there to be obtained without much difficulty, and the desire for European household goods can be satisfied.

39A Ferguson, C.E., and Ralph W. Pfouts, "Learnings and Expectations in Dynamic Duopoly Behavior," Behavioral Science, 7 (2), April 1962: 223-237.

3.01 3.08 3.15 Dynamic theories of duopoly have generally shown that market stability is possible only if the rival firms are guided by very simple conjectural hypotheses, i.e., beliefs about how their own actions towards prices and market quantities will affect their rival's policies. Almost the only hypothesis that will lead to stability in a dynamic model is the Cournot hypothesis which states that each firm believes its rival will continue to put the same quantity of product into the market regardless of any action taken by the original firm. The Cournot hypothesis is usually rejected on the grounds that rival sellers are more aware of their market interdependence than this simple hypothesis suggests. Hence, we are left with unstable dynamic ducpoly models that do not accord with industrial experience. Market tranquility is so pervasive as to lead some observers to suspect almost univeral collusion. If it is postulated that a seller forms expectations of how his opponent will respond to his actions and that in successive time periods he alters his expectations on the basis of accrued experience, a learning process has been injected into the model. It should be observed that this process is similar to field theories of learning rather than association theories of learning. In mathematical terms, if an expectation function is postulated, the shape of the expectational function must alter as new information on the rival's behavior is gained. Such a process cannot be represented by the traditional tools of stockastic learning theory such as the Markov process in which fixed probabilities appear in the transition matrices. The latter are more appropriately related to association theories of learning. Rules for altering the expectational function must be obtained to carry the theory to completion. Any rule in the admissible class of rules must lead to a stable equilibrium, which have three characteristics: (1) it must be impossible to increase profits, (2) stable prices must obtain, and (3) the rule for altering the reaction function must show that no change is to be expected. A linear model, consisting of an expectational function and a demand function for each seller is developed. The rule for altering the expectational function is that each seller adjusts the intercept of his expectational function so that the altered function would have predicted his opponent's action correctly if it had been used in the previous period. A mathematical argument shows that for economically appropriate values of the functions, the model will attain stability. A method of solving numerical examples which makes use of the Laplace transform, is developed.

Propositions

4.07 (1) If one business firm learns to interpret its rival's behavior as indicating a certain course of action, and if the first firm has a learned way of reacting to the other's actions, then it is probable that the behavior of a firm can be predicted if the learning process is understood. (P. 224.)

Evidence: Unsubstantiated generalization.

39B Hirschman, Albert O. and Charles E. Lindblom, "Economic Development, Research and Development, Policy Making: Some Converging Views," Behavioral Science, 7 (2), April 1962: 211-222.

3.01 3.02 Recent writings of different subjects e.g., B. Klein and W. Meckling, "Application of Operations Research to Development Decisions," Operations Res., 6, May-June 1958: 352-363; A.O. Hirschman, The Strategy of Economic Development: Yale U. Press, 1958; and C.E. Lindblom, "Policy Analysis," Amer. Econ. R., 48, June 1958: 298-312, disclose a convergence of attacks on common conceptions of rational decision-making current in operations research, game theory, and decision-making theory. Specification of objectives, examination of alternative means, systematic evaluation of means in light of objectives are often excessively costly or impossible procedures, and sometimes disregard the possibility that a partial attack will mobilize otherwise unavailable resources for further advances. It is often more important to sensitize decision makers to such possibilities and to train them to react promptly to newly emerging problems, imbalances, and difficulties. Anticipation of and advance elimination of problems is often inferior to remedial measures adapted to inadequacies in earlier decisions. Decision making is seen as a succession of adaptations rather than as a maximizing choice. These dissents from current conceptions of rational decision making are rooted in perception of man's limited intellectual capacities and in the relation of success in problem solving to problem-solving motivation.

Propositions

3.01 3.07 (1) If no attempt is made to achieve a balanced economy and the various sectors of the economy are left to survive or perish without interference by planners, then the probability of maximum economic growth is enhanced. (P. 211.)

Evidence: Unsubstantiated generalization.

3.01 (2) If economic development is unplanned znd unbalanced by government, then it is probable that resource mobilization will move
3.03 at its most logical and fastest pace. (P. 212.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

3.07

3.01 (3) If one sector of an economy or technology advances at a more rapid pace than the others, then there is a probability that
3.11 other sectors of the economy and technology will be drawn along at a faster pace of development. (P. 213.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

40A Gadgil, D. R., "Socio-Economic Factors Underlying Pattern of Leadership Problems," Bombay Co-operative Quarterly, 44(3), January 1961: 153-156.

4.17 This is a paper read at the International Co-operative Alliance Seminar on Co-operative Leadership. It discusses the leadership problems that co-operative organizations in many underdeveloped countries are facing due to the presence of poverty, backwardness and traditionally stratified social structures like the caste system, religious groups, distant urban and rural societies, etc. Breaking down older group loyalties and formation of a more and more homogeneous regional society are important goals to be aimed at. It is maintained that the rapid spread of educational opportunities and economic equality can throw up leaders from among the under-privileged classes.

41A Shaikh, A. U., "Role of Land Mortgage Banks in Agricultural Development," Bombay Co-op., 2(9), November 1960: 7-8, and 28.

1.021

4.05

4.17

42A Beattie, J.H.M., "Culture Contact and Social Change," Brit. J. Sociol., 12(2), June 1961: 165-175.

5.01 3.14 Most modern students of social change understand that no explanation in terms merely of the diffusion of culture traits or of independent evolution is likely to be satisfactory, since a multiplicity of factors is always involved, and these require identification and analysis. Social anthropologists working in this field have usually concentrated on those structural changes which have been brought about in simpler and smaller-scale societies by contact with more advanced cultures, and which have led to social conflict and strain. Though these have received most attention in Africa, they have also been studied elsewhere, and three of Raymond Firth's well-known studies of Polynesia (Primitive Economics of the New Zealand Maori; We, The Tikopia; and Social Change in Tikopia) provide a very full account of social change in the Pacific. The ethnographic and theoretical content of these three books is here briefly indicated and, in particular, Firth's theses(a) that change may take place on three levels, in personnel, in organization (ways of doing things) and in social structure; and (b) that social structure itself may be regarded in three aspects, the structure of ideas and values, the structure of expectations, and the structure of action, are discussed. Though much further research is needed in the field of social change, especially into the nature of the 'conflicts' said to be involved (are these between people, between institutions, or between ideas, or between all 3?), much information is now available about the processes involved, and Firth's contribution, in particular, has been notable both ethnographically and theoretically.

Propositions

No propositions.

42B Hoyt, Elizabeth, E., "Voluntary Employment and Unemployment in Jamaica with Special Reference to the Standard of Living," Brit. J. Sociol., 11(2), June 1960: 129-136.

1.041 3.08 3.10 3.15 In Jamaica there is relatively extensive unemployment, though employers complain about the lack of suitable labor. The lack of response to economic incentives which exists in Jamaica is explained as (1) A situation in part due to the family system, since from 60% to 70% of all children are born out of wedlock. Roving and common-law fathers presumably feel less responsible for the provision of their children than those who assume such responsibility under the law. There is some statistical evidence to support this conclusion. (2) The emotional disturbances of adolescents who are confused by rapid social and economic change are also a contributory factor. According to one major study by Madeline Kerr (Personality and Conflict in Jamaica, Liverpool, 1952), although children start off creatively, as they grow older they lack drive and become "psychologically unprepared to deal with economic possibilities." (3) A third reason lies in the lack of suitable markets to stimulate wants. The goods offered in shops, even in Woolworth's, are aimed primarily at the middle and upper income groups. Native markets, though colorful, always offer the same goods. In addition, tariffs raise the prices of even such necessities as processed cereals, soaps and soap powders, and paper products. The interdependence of the parts of the standard of living in relation to the whole is demonstrated. Limited housing contributes to lack of demand for other things, since a person must have a place to consume what he buys. Some families are still living in old slave quarters. The Jamaica Sample Survey reported in 1957 that 46% of the houses consisted of one room "or less."

Propositions

1.041 (1) If members of a potential working force find it relatively
easy to get food and shelter from relatives and friends,
3.10 then there is a probability that industry will find it
difficult to recruit an adequate labor force. (P. 130.)
3.15 Evidence: Case study.

1.041 (2) If a country is characterized by a high rate of illegitimacy,
then the economic development of that country will probably
5.111 be impaired. (P. 131.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

1.041 (3) If people have little or no knowledge of new items of consumption, then economic development will be inhibited.
3.15 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.
5.113

1.041 (4) If a country has high tariffs, then it is probable that
consumer wants will not develop and a motivation for industrialization will be absent. (P. 133.)
3.16 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

1.041 (5) If people's wants are manipulated so that they desire more consumer goods, then economic development will be
3.15 facilitated. (P. 135.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.
5.123

42C Little, Kenneth, "Applied Anthropology and Social Change in the Teaching of Anthropology," Brit. J. Sociol., 11(4), December 1960, 332-347.

5.01 Hitherto anthropology has been applied mainly to the administration of backward peoples, but it is now employed in business, the armed forces, medicine, and for other modern purposes. Research done for governments does not necessarily require the anthropologist to make recommendations, but if he offers advice it should be administratively practicable. Advice implies prediction, hence the importance of a systematic method of interpreting phenomena of social change. Structural-functionalism is no longer applicable to tribal areas where social forces extraneous to the indigenous structure make it impossible nowadays to proceed holistically: evolutionary schemes imply sociological separations which are unreal. The problem is not what is indigenous, European, or transitional, but what is significant for social relations regarding the missionary, trader, and labor recruiter, as well as the chief and the magician, as integral to the contact situation. In the re-ordering of social relations which change involves, the crucial factor tends to be technological superiority as demonstrated historically by the ability of the European to force tribal people into his own monetary economy. In West Africa, the capitalistic aim was achieved with the aid of Westernized Africans, leaving native society more or less intact. The importance of understanding social change and modern institutions implies that the applied anthropologist's training should comprise sociological as well as anthropological thought and theory, including the more complex societies of the West. A knowledge of the social factors involved in racial relations is particularly relevant to colonial and underdeveloped areas and should constitute an overlapping course. Methods of social research, including statistics, should also be taught and supporting subjects, such as economic history and politics. Finally, apart from the professional investigator there are the people concerned with practical problems of administration, community development, public health, etc., whom anthropology can help gain a clearer insight into their work. For them the courses given should provide some theoretical appreciation of the organization and functioning of social groups, the meaning of alien cultures, and some consideration of so-called social problems from a sociological angle.

Propositions

No propositions.

42D Williams, Jac L., "Some Social Consequences of Grammar School Education in a Rural Area in Wales," Brit. J. Sociol., 10(2), June 1959: 125-128.

5.062 This article discusses the impact upon social mobility of the introduction of a grammar school into a rural Welsh village.
5.10 The primary result of introducing grammar school education was to drain the best talent from the town. This exodus occurred be-
6.05 cause education brought rising abilities and expectations which could find no outlet within the village.

Propositions

5.10 (1) The probability of migration from an area will be increased if increases in opportunities for employemnt of educated persons do not keep pace with increases in the rate of education. (Pp. 125-128.)

Evidence: Case study of a rural Welsh village; quantitative data are used to specify patterns of in and out migration.

42E Ginsberg, Morris, "Social Change," Brit. J. Sociol., 9(3), September 1958: 205-229.

5.01 Observations set forth to discuss social change and the nature of causality: (1) historians and social scientists face and are in search of the same sorts of explanation in dealing with social change; (2) causality does not mean regularity of succession; rather, regularity leads to a search for causes; (3) historians tend to consider facts of history essentially as psychological; (4) "cause" is a set of factors jointly sufficient and necessary to produce an effect; and (5) in social science the concern is not with the intention of individuals, but with structural relations in their bearing on individuals. The social scientists have not been historical enough and the historians have not been attentive enough of social scientists. The major source of social change are seen as conditions generating strains or "contradictions" in the social structure and the efforts made to overcome them. Sources of strain are many and not reducible to system. Despite a fundamental similarity, there are differences between social and physical causation; social facts are more variable and less likely to be repeated in identical fashion, and mental factors produce an effect in causal relations. Social causation is cumulative and frequently circular; and social processes are "neither

fatally predetermined nor free from limiting conditions. But the greater the knowledge of the limiting conditions, the larger is the scope offered to conscious direction and control."

Propositions

No propositions; methodological discussion about how to study social change.

43A Alvord, E. D., "Agricultural Extension and Demonstration Methods Amongst African Peasant Farmers," Bulletin Agricole du Congo Belge, 40, September-December 1949: 2468-2476.

6.082 The director of the Department of Native Agriculture, Southern Rhodesia describes the manner in which trained African agricultural demonstrators teach improved methods to native peasants, and discusses some of the improvements they have been propagating.

43B Maher, Colin, "Study of the Methods of Propaganda and Education," Bulletin Agricole du Congo Belge, 40, September-December 1949: 2446-2450.

4.10 With reference to experience in British East Africa, the author discusses methods of educating the rural population to the need for
6.08 improved methods of agriculture, and of persuading them to adopt new methods which have been tested by experiment.
6.10

44A Lewis, W. Arthur, "Science, Men, and Money," Bull. Atomic Sci., 17(2), February 1961: 43-47.

3.03 Underdeveloped countries must study their existing natural
resources in the process of their economic development. The importance
3.10 of the biological sciences cannot be overlooked, since
agriculture occupies between 50% and 75% of the populations, and
4.09 biology provides needed contributions. Advanced technology is
irrelevant to underdeveloped areas, where the problem is to create
6.04 efficient manpower with a minimum of capital. The farmer is the
most important person to be considered in economic development.
6.05 In Asia and Latin America, he has been plagued by landlords and
moneylenders, and the results do not point to an increase in production.
6.06 He needs a proper economic framework in which to function
and technical assistance from trained agricultural workers.
6.08 Discussion includes: (1) Bottleneck in secondary education--showing
the need for people trained on the secondary level as agricultural
7.231 agents, nurses, laboratory technicians, etc., rather than
university graduates. The need for university trained people is
7.232 directly proportional to the level of development of the area.
(2) How Much Money?--amount of money required for economic growth depends on the rate of growth one wishes to attain. A framework for public services is provided, outlining the percentage of expenditures the governments should make to facilitate the growth process. (3) Saving by Taxation--if 20% of the national income is raised in taxes, 12% spent on government services, and 8% added to 5% of private saving, a respectable level of capital formation is possible. Ghana, Burma, and Ceylon have followed this method. (4) Overproduction of politicians--political leaders should give priority to economic development, but other areas are found more rewarding as sources of political power. Older countries can provide technical assistance to the newer countries, but they cannot give political stability. (5) How Older Countries Can Help--(A) free availability of natural and social science, and (B) technical assistance. The impracticality of these methods lies in the fact that newly developed countries which have just thrown back their colonial tutelage are not ready to submit to the tutelage of U.S. and U.S.S.R. civil servants. (6) Importance of Money--monetary contributions from richer nations would permit national income to grow more rapidly and can allow a bigger surplus out of which taxation can be levied without pressing on current levels of consumption. The problem of judicious use of aid also arises, and we must try to assure that money goes to underdeveloped countries where it will be put to good use.

Propositions

5.111 (1) The probability of economic development will be decreased if the educational system cultivates expectations which cannot
6.06 be satisfied at the present stage of development. (P. 44.)
Evidence: Example in underdeveloped countries of
6.14 primary education resulting in expectations not compatible with agricultural employment.

44B Prentice, Edward S., "Significant Issues in Economic Aid to Newly Developing Countries," Bull. Atomic. Sci., 16(8), October 1960: 326-328 and 333.

5.16 A presentation of the findings of a Stanford Research Institute report on the problems of economic aid programs, concluding
3.17 that: "(1) the very multiplicity of aid programs and agencies results in a bewildering array of small and large bureaucracies that cannot possibly attain the administrative efficiency and field effectiveness that a more purposeful and centralized authority could provide, and (2) the greatest reservoir of industrial growth talent the world has ever witnessed, U.S. free enterprise, has not yet contributed to the goal." The report's conclusions in the following areas are outlined: U.S. balance of payments problems, multitude of aid sources and lack of coordination between U.S. programs and those of friendly foreign countries, burden-sharing with other industrial countries, U.S. bilateral vs. multilateral aid, U.S. attitude toward Soviet bloc assistance, long-range plans vs. short-range budgets, separation of military aid and economic development aid, grants vs. loans, the role of private foreign investment, the use of local currencies for development aid, disposal of agricultural surpluses, and lack of public understanding of economic aid. It is suggested that "perhaps if attitudes toward 'economic aid' in countries extending aid were changed so that such programs are regarded as a sound investment in positive world economic growth, the difficult road of development would be made easier."

Propositions

3.17 (1) The multiplicity of foreign aid programs and the consequent growth of many decentralized bureaucracies are an impediment to administrative efficiency and field effectiveness. (P.326.)
Evidence: Summary of study of foreign aid programs.

44C de Jouvenel, Bertrand, "From Political Economy to Political Ecology," Bull. Atomic Sci., 13(8), October 1957: 287-291.

3.11 A refutation of the notion that late-comers in the process
of industrialization have an easy task, since they have but to
3.12 follow the procedure of the already advance industrial nations.
The erroneous nature of this assumption, which is based upon the
4.09 postulate that the current situation of underdeveloped countries
is the same as that from which the presently advanced nations
5.07 moved forward, is discussed with reference to the problems of
natural resources, ecology, and demography. With increased industrialization the accumulation of the necessary raw materials will probably require an increasing industrial effort. In addition, the geographical distribution of these resources will be changed due to the exploitation of different deposits at varying speeds and the growth of industrial chemistry value will be conferred on previously unvalued resources. Man does not realize that "human life is a dependent part of a ecosystem of many different forms of life." Awareness of this fact must decrease so that we work toward repairing, and not merely destroying our natural resources.

Propositions

4.09 (1) "All other factors being equal,the quantity of labor reruired to obtain a particular agricultural product will be
4.12 in inverse ratio to the amount of agricultural land available.
The less need there is to economize on the use of land, the
4.16 greater the possibility of economizing on agricultural
labor." (This appears to mean that intensive cultivation requires of itself more manpower then extensive cultivation.) (P. 289.)

Evidence: Author's speculative argument.

3.16 (2) If nations that were once exporters of raw materials develop a widespread desire to industrialize, they are likely to view their raw materials in a new light and are willing to export their raw materials only in exchange for imports of raw materials.

Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

44D de Jouvenel, Bertrand, "On the Character of the Soviet Economy," Bull. Atomic Sci., 13(9), November, 1957: 327-330.

3.01 The attempt of the U.S.S.R to emulate U.S. economic power
is "the conscious and systematic imitation of something which
3.02 exists, but which was not brought about either consciously or
systematically." Thus, the production of plant and equipment
3.11 has absolute priority in Russia. Moreover, the Soviet government
plays the role attributed by Marx to the capitalist: it "gives
the workers the smallest possible share of 'added value' and
retains the largest possible share in order to apply it to investment."
There is an influx of workers depressing the labor
market, such as Marx observed in his day in England, and the
solidarity between employers and government which he thought
characteristic of capitalist society. Thus, the communists are
"enamored of the buildup achieved by the hated and despised
capitalism to the point of thinking that its speedy emulation
justifies greater pressure upon men than was ever exerted under
capitalism."

Propositions

No propositions.

45A Basu, S. K., "On Diffusion and Adoption of Farm Traits," *Bull. Cult. Res. Inst., Calcutta*, 3(1), 1964: 47-51.

1.021 The author examines the rate of acceptancy by farmers of twelve practices which are recommended in the agricultural extension program of the State of West Bengal, India. Data were obtained in 1963 from 658 farmers in an area where rice and jute are the main crops. The use of ammonium sulphate was adopted by 79% of the farmers; the use of plant protection chemicals by 74.5%; the use of improved jute seeds by nearly 72%; the use of improved rice seeds by nearly 41%. The acceptance of the Japanese method of rice cultivation was low, viz. 8.5%, owing to the fact that this practice requires considerable skill and is rather costly. Low acceptance was also found for some other improved practices, vix., green manuring, improved poultry raising and artificial insemination.

46B Balogh, T., and P. P. Streeten, "The Coefficient of Ignorance," *Bulletin of the Oxford University Institute of Statistics*, 25(2), May 1963: 99-107.

6.16 This article strongly questions on many counts the validity of existing models of the relation of education to economic growth, and of work on returns to educational expenditure. The pitfalls that can be expected to result if this work, undertaken with reference to advanced countries, is applied to developing countries, are emphasized, and in conclusion some important factors to be considered in formulating educational plans for developing countries are listed.

47A Suri, G. K., "Some Aspects of Socio-Cultural Environment and Economic Planning in India," Calcutta R., 134(3), March 1960: 265-269.

3.01
3.07
Planning is here defined as a process by which the level of technology is raised. Technology and human resources being inseparably interwoven with each other, a change in one will necessarily have its repercussion on the other. The importance of the sociological aspect of planning is emphasized here through a brief study of some important social institutions like the caste system, family system, religion, class structure, education, health, and entrepreneurship.

48A Motheral, J. R., "Agricultural Development a Problem of Investment Priorities," Canad. J. Agr. Econ., 10(2), 1962: 24-34.

2.036
4.03
4.05
This includes the work of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development and the article also includes a discussion.

48B Sargent, F. O., "A Suggested Trade Policy for Developing Agricultural Nations," Canad. J. Agr. Econ., 9(2), 1961: 107-117.

3.16
3.18
4.06
The purpose of this paper is to present a hypothesis to the effect that managed trade may be the general concept most useful in explaining international trade of developing nations rather than the concepts of free trade or protection. This thesis is developed by a brief review of the general trade problems faced by developing nations, a discussion of the means available for attaining national economic development goals, a consideration of the possibilities of retaliation to trade control measures and an illustration of how managed trade may lead to expanded total trade.

49A Martin, Fernand, "The Information Effect of Economic Planning," Canadian J. Econ. Pol. Sci., 39(3), 1964: 323-342.

3.01 There are two methods of supplying information to firms:
free markets and economic planning. To justify economic planning
3.07 one must necessarily demonstrate not only that through the infor-
mation effect planning reduces uncertainty, but that it does so
3.08 more effectively than the other method and without any adverse
side-effects important enough to nullify its advantages.

A plan has some advantage in long and medium term forecasting at the level of large aggregates. On the other hand, such forecasts have little significance for the informational needs of firms. In the first place, for most firms, rules of decision-making minimize the need for long term detailed forecasts of aggregate variables. Secondly, in the absence of economic planning,co-ordination of the plans of individual firms is brought about spontaneously by information differentiation and market imperfections.

Planners thus face a dilemma. On the one hand, any important contribution of economic planning to the forecasting done by firms depends upon the possibility of constructing detailed models; in the other, the probability of error in forecasting increases with the amount of detail. Furthermore, economic planning does not obviate modes of behavior such as collusion.

Economic planning has two types of indirect information effects: it identifies situations of conflict and has the effect of giving rise to a super-game, and it permits information feedbacks which call for attempts at distorting information. A cybernetic model suggests that the making of a plan will become political.

Propositions

No propositions.

49B Bertram, Gordon W., "Economic Growth in Canadian Industry, 1870-1915: The Staple Model and the Take-off Hypothesis," Canadian J. Econ. Pol. Sci., 29(2), 1963: 159-184.

1.06 Professor Rostow's stage model does not contribute to an identification of the main variables involved in Canadian long-term growth, Industrialization in Canada, which was a gradual process already well under way prior to Rostow's take-over period of 1896-1914, was associated with the expansion of the nineteenth-century Atlantic community. A more satisfactory approach than the take-off hypothesis is found in the export staple model which holds that growth in agricultural and other extractive export staple industries gradually induced industrialization in Canada. Since manufacturing real output was expanding rapidly at an average annual compound rate of 4.6 percent in the pre-take-off period of 1870-90, the discontinuity implied in manufacturing output was not present. In the years 1770-90 there was considerable and increasing specialization among firms in size and function as well as increasing geographical specialization among the provinces in manufacturing output. Established views appearing in the literature that the later decades of the nineteenth century in Canada were years of secular depression do not appear substantiated.

The record of growth, the backward and forward linkages, and the income effects of export staple industries are similar in their influences to Rostow's leading sectors. Unlike Rostow's leading sectors, however, staple industries did not commence operation in the take-off stage, but influenced the economy throughout Canadian history. Further, staple industries are not confined to the manufacturing sector as are leading sectors. Originally, export staple industries were the base for whatever commercialization existed. A long succession of different export staples initiated increases in productivity and income expansion. In the critical take-off period that Rostow selected for Canada, the sector which filled most adequately all the dimensions of a leading sector was western wheat rather than a manufacturing sector.

Propositions

No propositions; methodological treatment.

49A Bowman, Mary Jean, "Educational Shortage and Excess," Canadian J. Econ. Pol. Sci., 29(4), 1963: 446-461.

3.10 Though manpower and educational "shortages" are much discussed, prevailing conceptions are confused. Any assessment must
3.19 rest upon some set of philosophical presuppositions; both normative and positive economics are involved.

6.16 Views of excess or (usually) shortage in which there are wide discrepancies between actuality and a goal or norm-image are most dramatically evidenced in less developed countries, but the basic problems recur in industrialized nations as well. Too often in such circumstances absolute and ad hoc judgments displace relative and analytical assessments. But absolute views are analytically trivial; shortage and excess are relative, and allocative norms must be used as reference points.

Most of the traditionally respectable indexes economists have used to assess excess and shortage are defined by arbitrarily chosen reference points, and have no analytical standing. These include: 1) lack of sufficient jobs of "suitable" kinds, 2) lack of jobs at some previously or arbitrarily identified rate of pay (or, conversely, lack of applicants for jobs at some given pay rate), and 3) deviation from a previous relative pay position. A very different approach 4) is concerned with monopolization or restriction of opportunity; this can be a valid indication of shortage in some situations. Finally 5) a more generalized criterion is comparison among rates of return. This differs from (1)-(3) in a critical respect: it takes the cost of education into account. However, it excludes non-monetary preferences, and the short-term discrepancies that characterize adjustments in a dynamic economy are given full weight. In the last analysis, the most important and reliable indicators of persisting distortions in relative supplies of skills lie in evidence about economic processes that goes beyond (4) to take full account of distributions of opportunity and of knowledge (or ignorance) about alternatives.

Finally, following a digression on teachers, attention is given to two recent problems in the United States, (1) the rising level of minimum education for participation in most job markets and the premature expansion of junior colleges relative to efforts among lagging subpopulations, (2) the problem of distribution of investments in training over the life-cycle of individuals. Where rapid change has become institutionalized, education to counter obsolescence may call for new patterns in the timing of training.

Propositions

(1) If an economy is changing (e.g., becoming more complex and industrial), then there is a constant and rising demand for education. (P. 461.)
Evidence: Unsubstantiated assumption.

49B Cragg, J.G., "Technological Progress, Investment and Full-Employment Growth," Canadian J. Econ. Pol. Sci., 29(3), 1963: 311-323.

3.01 The paper seeks to provide a framework for analyzing the
relationships between investment, technological progress and
3.02 growth. Gross investment is regarded as exploiting possibilities
arising from technological progress. Opportunities for useful
3.03 investment, arising from present and unexploited past technological
progress, are described by a function relating the proportion of
3.10 the economy's income invested to the rate of growth. This function,
in conjunction with one expressing the economy's willingness to
invest, determines investment and the rate of growth at any time.
The level of investment, thus determined, causes changes, in

specified manner, in the function of investment opportunities in the future and also of subsequent technological progress. These lead to changes in the rate of growth over time until a position of long-run equilibrium in the growth rate, characterized by balance between the exploitation and development of technological improvements, is reached. The analysis uses assumptions about savings, income distribution,and the flexibility of prices to maintain full employment continually.

The model developed is then used to discuss the effects on growth of different rates and different sorts of technological progress and of changes in the community's willingness to invest. The effects on the model of introducing interest rates into the mechanism maintaining full employment are examined. A complete model of growth is not developed, only a limited one for examining the roles of investment and technological progress.

Propositions

No propositions; methodological treatment.

49C Fallenbuchl, Z.M., "Investment Policy for Economic Development: Some Lessons of the Communist Experience," Canadian J. Econ. Pol. Sci., 29(1), 1963: 26-30.

1.06 Communist experience demonstrates the importance of the concept of the optimum rate of investment, although the existence of
3.02 an optimum was denied by Communists until recently. The rate of investment which is politically acceptable can be excessively high
3.03 as the result of the interaction of two effects.

A positive "production effect" of investment will become less than proportionate when the share of national income devoted to investment exceeds a certain level. The planners tend to concentrate on new projects in the priority sectors and capital in other sectors may be reduced. An excessively high rate of new investment may not leave sufficient resources for modernization of plants and machinery. Both tendencies may have a slowing down effect. The diminishing productivity of net investment may be caused by an excessively wide investment front, unnecessary lengthening of the gestation period of investment and a growing number of unfinished projects, a reduction in the efficiency of the whole productive process as a result of an attempt to enforce an excessively high rate of growth, a growing scarcity of labor, balance of payments difficulties, and the appearance of local "ceilings" in some sectors.

An increase in the share of national income devoted to investment reduces consumption. This is a negative "consumption effect" of investment which tends to reduce the rate of growth through the lack of incentives and sometimes even through malnutrition.

Because of the interaction of these two effects, it is not the highest but the optimum rate of investment which will result in the highest rate of growth. The determination of the rate of investment is not, therefore, a purely political matter.

The danger of overlooking economic factors is particularly great in the Communist system for doctrinal and institutional reasons.

Propositions

No propositions.

49D Hansen, Niles M., "The Protestant Ethic as a General Precondition for Economic Development," Canadian J. Econ. Pol. Sci., 29(4), 1963: 462-476.

3.01 3.15 5.16 This paper argues that understanding of Weber's thesis con-cerning both the Protestant ethic and capitalism has been frequently erroneous or incomplete, and that when his thought concerning the metaphysical foundations of economic rationality is fully understood, its implications for economic motivation and development problems become more important. More specifically, this article contends that Weber's basic ideas concerning the practical economic effects of the economic actor's value orientation are valid within the framework of any given economic system.

One of the principal barriers to an understanding of Weber's thesis has been the tendency of critics to link the Protestant ethic to a specific dogma. Weber, however, was more interested in the power of the practical ethic to rationalize the organization of capital and labor than he was in the particular irrational dogmas which fostered the ethic. Although he held that a value orientation conducive to practical economic rationality had appeared only in Protestant Europe, he did not intend to offer a monocausal interpretation of the development of modern capitalism. The Protestant ethic was a necessary but not a sufficient condition for economic development.

Events since Weber's death (1920) have demonstrated the relevance of his insights to general problems of economic development. In Soviet Russia, idology has provided the type of value orientation necessary to overcome traditionalist attitudes in favor of methodically rational economic behavior. There is widespread evidence that in the newly-developing countries, where growth has been frequently obstructed by prevailing contemplative, magical, or sacramental religious values, certain existing values can be utilized to encourage the type of economic behavior fostered by the Protestant ethic in the West.

Propositions

3.15 (1) Religious or ideological motivation is an essential requirement for economic development within any system. Development
5.16 is not possible apart from an environment which encourages rational economic behavior. (P. 474.)

Evidence: Historical analysis; considerable dependence upon quotations from secondary sources.

49E Waines, W.J., "The Role of Education in the Development of Underdeveloped Countries," Canadian J. Econ. Pol. Sci., 29(4), November 1963: 437-445.

3.19
6.01
6.16

In the underdeveloped countries there has been a waste of manpower and capital because the processes of economic growth are imperfectly understood, governments of receiving countries ask for the wrong things or ask for things in the wrong order, assistance agencies fail to co-ordinate their activities, and both departments of recipient countries and donors enter into competition. Education and health are often considered secondary; but increases in the education, training, and health of workers account for a good deal of the economic growth that cannot be explained by increases in the amount of material capital and in population. Ability to use capital effectively depends in part on human resources. Between 1958 and 1970, it has been estimated that an eighty percent increase in the number of students in secondary education and a doubling of the numbers of students in higher education in the underdeveloped countries is required. This necessitates a vast increase in the number of qualified teachers, and also a proper balance in each region between different levels and types of education. Education may be imported, or produced at home; probably too much has been imported, because of the desire of developing countries for quick results and of competition among donor countries for quick results and of competition among donor countries and agencies. Careful planning is required for an educational program that will fit the social, cultural, and political facts of a country and the long-run aims and ambitions of its people.

Propositions

3.19 (1) If educational programs are not geared to the rate of growth of the economy as a whole, then inequalities will result
6.01 from the graduation of unemployable primary and secondary school students. (P. 442.)

6.16 Evidence: The example of West Africa is cited.

49F Watkins, Melville H., "A Staple Theory of Economic Growth," Canadian J. Econ. Pol. Sci., 29(2), 1963: 141-158.

1.06
3.01 The dominance of the export sector in the Canadian economy has been accompanied by the development of a staple approach to the study of Canadian economic history, notably by Harold Innis. A survey of recent literature shows a waning of the staple approach among Canadians, but a rise elsewhere. The result is a gap in the literature which needs to be bridged.

The staple theory can fruitfully be limited to the case of the new country characterized by a favorable man/land ratio and an absence of inhibiting traditions. So constrained, the theory is restated in more rigorous form as a theory of export-induced capital formation. The character of the export good as defined by its production function is a leading determinant, via its effects on income distribution, social structure, etc., both of domestic investment opportunities and of the domestic response thereto.

Given the advantages of new countries, a staple with potent linkage effects can create extraordinary economic success, whereas the wrong kind of staple--or a resource base not conducive to industrialization--can cause the economy to be caught in a "staple trap" and to exhibit the characteristics, and face the difficulties, of the conventional overpopulated, tradition-ridden underdeveloped country.

This version of the staple theory stands in contrast with other models of economic development where foreign trade allegedly has few consequences, favorable or adverse, for sustained economic growth. But it remains relevant to the study of Canadian economic history, for it can be demonstrated that the achievement of a satisfactory rate of growth has always come via the export sector. Much of the difficulty in creating self-generating growth, however, may lie with the Canadian tariff, or, more generally, with the policy-making mentality of which it is symptomatic.

Propositions

1.06
3.01 (1) The probability that a particular form of economic organization with function successfully will be increased if traditions inimical to the particular form of organization are absent. (P. 149.)

Evidence: Unsubstantiated assertion.

49G Dehem, Roger, "The Economics of Stunted Growth," Canadian J. Econ. Pol. Sci., 28(4), November 1962: 502-510.

1.06 According to the conventional theory, Canada's economic
stagnation in the past five years is to be imputed essentially to
3.01 monetary policy. In the present article it is argued that an
appropriate monetary policy may not have sufficed to induce a
3.02 rate of growth commensurate with Canada's potential. It suggests
that the "real" factors of economic performance should be inquired
3.16 into.

Since 1957, the structural weaknesses of the Canadian economy have become apparent after a period of exceptional development due to transient circumstances. A basic weakness appears to be the satellitic nature of a large part of Canadian industry, a result of the protective tariff. Most foreign subsidiaries established to serve a small domestic market are not free to grow autonomously to conquer world markets, as many firms in fast-growing European economies are. Besides this built-in ceiling to expansion which is peculiar to Canada, more universal factors that slow down the development of unplanned capitalist economies are hinted at, namely, the increasing effort of vested interests to protect past investments.

To inquire into, and to deal effectively with, the real factors of Canadian development, it is suggested that an Economic Planning Commission be established which would formulate a comprehensive policy consistent with long-term national goals. Such an institution would, however, be delusive if it chose as its target Harrod's "warranted rate of growth," defined as "the condition in which producers will be content with what they are doing."

Propositions

No propositions.

49H Garigue, Phillipe, "Organisation Sociale et Valeurs Culturelles Canadiennes--Francaises," Canadian J. Econ. Pol. Sci., 28(2), May 1962: 189-203.

1.06 There are three cultural orientations which contribute to th
the present state of French-Canadian culture. The three influ-
5.062 ences are: 1) North American, as opposed to French; 2) since 1760,
French-speaking Canadians have become aware of their differences,
5.064 especially from the English-speaking Canadians; and 3) as a result
of industrialization and urbanization, French Canadians are increasingly aware of an inferior status. The causes and results of these three orientations are discussed.

Propositions

5.064 (1) If one group in a society is economically dominant, then there is a tendency for other groups in the society to imitate the dominant group. (P. 198.)

Evidence: The generalization is unsubstantiated. In the author's argument this proposition explains French-Canadian behavior, though. French-Canadian behavior could be interpreted as evidence for the proposition.

5.069 (2) The probability that a group will oppose another group increases if the first group feels that it is threatened by the second group. (P. 198.)

Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

49I Garigue, Philippe, "The Social Evolution of Quebec: A Reply," Canadian J. Econ. Pol. Sci., 27(2), May 1961: 257-260.

1.06 Ideas expressed by a number of sociologists about French Canada are reviewed, and it is pointed out why certain hypotheses
5.01 about the folk characteristics of this society are not valid. "The myth of the peasant culture" of French Canada as presented
5.064 in various studies is especially criticized.

Propositions

No propositions; critical examination of sociological studies.

49J Guindon, Hubert, "The Social Evolution of Quebec Reconsidered," Canadian J. Econ. Pol. Sci., 26(4), November 1960: 533-551.

1.06 A presentation of an "overall view of the changes that were wrought in the social organization of French Canada from its
5.01 beginnings," detailing: (1) "the emergence of the rural society from the collapse of the feudal trading society," (2) "the mechan-
5.11 ics of social organization of the rural society," and (3) "the impact of the recent massive industrialization on the preceding social structure." As a result of the British military victory, the clergy emerged, by default, as the undisputed leaders of the local colonists. "The social organization of French Canada was simplified and proceeded along a single line of social development rural development." French Canadian social institutions were built upon rural society, "financed by its economics, controlled

by its own ethnic elite with a cultural flavor of its own." The rejuvenation of the traditional elites in the new society that is emerging can be accounted for on the basis of a set of converging interests of clergy, political parties, and foreign capitalists. "The true sociological meaning, in terms of power, however, will be the establishment of a wider and more efficient communication system between the strictly political and the clerically controlled bureaucracies, because in the new system a bigger traffic between the two spheres is anticipated as the flow of money to clerically administered coffers increases." However, "after having achieved complete control over the social organization, the clergy may discover, perhaps too late, that its population no longer knows what religion and its cherished symbols mean." And this will occur "as a direct result of the clergy's own successful control of the whole society."

Propositions

1.06 (1) The probability that a traditional elite will initiate deep social changes increases if the elite has observed the
5.01 debilitation or destruction of a similar elite because of its failure to adapt itself to a changing environment.
5.11 (Pp. 547-548.)

Evidence: Historical analysis--the example of the French Canadian Catholic bureaucracy which successfully shifted its base of power from rural to urban in response to the Church's decline in Europe.

49K Rich, E.E., "Trade Habits and Economic Motivation among the Indians of North America," Canadian J. Econ. Pol. Sci., 26(1), February 1960: 35-53.

1.06 Discussion of Indian reaction to the fur trade, especially during the Eighteenth Century. The absence of an Indian under-
3.06 standing of property required the development of mechanism of "enticement" extending beyond the normal price mechanism of the
3.15 market. Also, it was necessary to make an exception to English opposition to monopolies (e.g., the Hudson Bay Co.). Even Adam Smith accepted the need for monopoly in this instance.

Propositions

1.06 (1) If an institution is introduced into a traditional society which lacks one or more characteristics which were present in
3.06 the society that spawned the institution and which are essential to the institution's operation, then some substitute
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must be found for the missing characteristics if the institution is to operate in the traditional society. (Pp. 52-53.)
Evidence: Historical analysis--the example of Indian response to the fur trade.

49L Keyfitz, Nathan, "The Interlocking of Social and Economic Factors in Asian Development," Canadian J. Econ. Pol. Sci., 25(1), February 1959: 34-46.

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Planned growth in the independent democratic nations created in Asia since World War II must take account of three periods of history, describable in agricultural terms: (1) Stone Age shifting cultivation, (2) advanced irrigated rice culture, and (3) plantations established under imperial rule. It must have regard for people, their society, and culture, and their motives, and develop among them conditions in which a competitive economic system will work. Anthropology has studied societies without changing them, and economics the mechanisms of change. New data are now being made available as Asia develops, which may be of special help to the sociologists in understanding the general mechanisms of social institutions.

Propositions

(1) The probability of cultural change is greater if the individuals in a system have similar motives. (Does not say total agreement is needed, but at least, for example, agreement on gain from the market.) (P. 37.)
Evidence: Common sense examples, (e.g., traffic patterns) and generalization from Western historical experience.

(2) The probability of investment in new techniques is increased if individuals perceive a stable future. Investments having a long gestation period are not made if the political, economic or social environment is chaotic. (P. 43.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

49M Dunning, R.W., "Some Implications of Economic Change in Northern Ojibwa Social Structure," Canadian J. Econ. Pol. Sci., 24(4), November 1958: 562-566.

1.06 5.061 7.231 7.232 Field work for several summers and one complete year among the northern Ojibwa at Petangekum in northwestern Ontario revealed that since the early 1940's economic change has led to marked demographic and social change. There has been a considerable increase in income, government assistance constituting a larger and larger part of the total income. This and a growth in federal health services has led to population growth and concentration, and the occurrence of three types of significant sociological change: (1) an intensification of the dual division (kin vs. non-kin), (2) remarkable development of cohesion and of marriage within the band, and (3) an apparent change in the rules of incest, tabooing first cross-cousins, possibly to increase the size of the kin-group because of a need for closer integration.

Propositions

3.06 (1) The probability that individuals' dependence upon the market will increase is greater in cases where the market's operation produces ever larger returns which make subsistence activities unnecessary. (P. 564.)
Evidence: Case study (non-quantitative) of Indians in Ontario.

49N Elliott, G.R., "Frontiers and Forms of Enterprise: The Call of the North Pacific, 1785-1825," Canadian J. Econ. Pol. Sci., 24(2), May 1958: 251-261.

1.06 3.08 The usual interpretations of the early history of the North Pacific in terms of the failure of Russian, British, and Spanish enterprise because of handicaps of government regulation and the triumph of New England free enterprise in the keen competition for furs are inadequate. Account must be taken of the fact that Spain's goal was primarily the civilization of the natives, that Russia, although aiming at profits, was also concerned with native welfare, and that Britain had alternative opportunities. Further, after the withdrawal of the British, the Russian and American forms of enterprise showed notable similarities. Business conditions in the North Pacific seem to have been more influential than metropolitan institutions.

Propositions

No propositions.

50A Asimakopulos, A., and J. C. Weldon, "A Synoptic View of Some Simple Models of Growth," Canadian Journal of Economics and Statistics, 31(1), 1965: 52-79.

3.01 The paper provides a comparative anatomy of some simple, basic models of economic growth, those of Ramsey, von Neumann, Harrod, Domar, Tobin, Mrs. Robinson, Solow, Swan, and Kaldor. The thesis is developed that within this selection surprisingly little has been added to the structure of Harrod's "Essay in Dynamic Theory." If the Harrod model is prefaced by Ramsey's account of savings, and supplemented by von Neumann's existence theorems for growth in a disaggregated economy, that range includes the essential ideas of the entire selection. Many issues have been clarified by the later items and useful elaborations have been developed, chiefly in an improved treatment of money, and of technological change and investment. But purely analytical improvements have been small. In this spirit the paper maintains it is mistaken to link Harrod's model with Domar's in the often encountered Harrod-Domar model: the Domar model is much the narrower in scope.

An important theme is that whereas Harrod distinguishes three rates of growth, the actual, the natural (or Walrasian), and the warranted (or Keynesian), in most of the other models there is no warranted rate except in the trivial sense that all rates are warranted because the savings and investment functions are identical. It is also argued that the more complex production systems of later models add little to Harrod's. Kaldor's technical progress function operates under the control of an investment function which acts to keep the output-capital ratio constant, and can always be duplicated by a single process that is subject to capital-neutral, labor-saving technical change. Similarly, the advantages of Mrs. Robinson's two-sector models are not analytical but only descriptive.

51A Kuruvilla, P. K., "Problems of Public Administration in Developing Countries with Special Reference to India," Canadian Public Administration, 8(1), March 1965: 66-107.

1.021 In many ways (size, population, political patterns, social
structure, industrial capacity) developing countries differ, but
7.03 certain unique similarities can be discerned among the numerous
unwieldy administrative problems of these countries. These can be
grouped as follows: (1) personnel and political problems (staffing,

selection and recruitment, unpopularity of the public services, adjustment between the political leadership and the administration, excessive centralization of authority and work at the top levels); (2) socio-economic problems (education, caste and tribal loyalties, linguistic problems, economic problems). In searching for a solution to these problems it may not be feasible to duplicate or transplant administrative structures and procedures which have met with success elsewhere -- each country may have to discover and apply solutions appropriate to its own problems. Even to the advanced countries there is no foolproof system of public administration as yet in reality.

51B Samuel, E., "Efficiency in the Israel Civil Service," Canadian Public Administration, 4(2), June 1961: 191-196.

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On the whole, the internal structure of the Israel Civil Service is good, though the distribution of functions between Ministries is often illogical from an administrative point of view, and the devolution of authority to some office-holders is incomplete. One general weakness is the failure to check constantly the results achieved by the administrative machine with the results aimed at in the original plan; they leave to the audit of the State Controller both accountancy and administrative efficiency. Office meetings, the curse of Israel, are a result of several things: inter-ministerial and inter-departmental rivalry, party rivalry and the fear of partisanship of the part of officials, and naive belief that constant discussion is specifically democratic. A frequent result of inadequate inspection is inadequate physical maintenance of public establishments. Thus friction and fatigue increase and efficiency declines. Salary systems are also a cause of demoralization amongst the staffs and it is difficult to achieve a properly representative service by general competitive examinations. The lower grades are filled by the Labor Exchanges as a statutory requirement. Compulsory military service interferes with work in government offices, with public complaints resulting from the delay in work which affects the public. There is too much political activity in the service, especially in the upper grades. There are various safeguards for the individual against the delays and decisions of government officials, and these are at the disposal of those interested in a high level of efficiency, whether from personal or public motives.

52A McCormack, T., "Social Change and the Mass Media," Canad. R. Sociol. Anthrop., 1(1), May 1964: 49-61.

5.15 The hypothesis discussed is whether the mass media of communication can, through the exercise of a critical function, countervail the totalitarian tendencies of mass society. A model for analysing the problem is proposed. The crux of the problem is the changing relationships between political journalism and political institutions (social systems) and between journalist and politician (roles). The interaction between these two systems and between the two roles sets the limits within which the critical function of the media operate. Critical function is measured by media content, influence, and power, the same indices that would be used to ascertain the effectiveness of a social movement. Thus the mass media of communication are viewed as serving in the twentieth-century functions of the democratic social movement of the nineteenth century. Comparing "class" and "mass" societies, the relationship between the two systems shifts from "autonomous" to "contingent", the latter manifest in "administrative journalism" with its public ownership and "prestige journalism" owned privately. When these are compared with journalism and the role of journalist in the U.S.S.R. certain similarities appear. The suggestion is made that although the critical function of the media is threatened by the conditions of mass society, it can be protected by forming alliances with other strategic non-political groups have had a similar vested interest to protect; among them, the critical social scientist.

53A Balogh, Thomas, "The Problem of Education in Africa," Centennial R., 6(4), Fall 1962: 526-552.

1.01 6.14 Writing in the context of Africa, the author stresses the need for educational planning to take place in close relation to planned economic and social development, or face the danger in the competition for scarce development resources, that over-ambitious or wrongly oriented educational plans will in fact impair the development effort. He denigrates the UNESCO Addis Ababa plan on these grounds, and instead proposes an African educational program more closely related to specific African needs, e.g., education to facilitate agricultural development.

Propositions

3.01 6.16 (1) When educational funds are channeled into orthodox forms of education (e.g., liberal arts courses) and quality education, the probability is that economic development will be inhibited. (Pp. 528-529,534.)

Evidence: Speculative argument on the basis of African needs.

54A Pieris, Ralph, "The Cultural Matrix of Development," Ceylon J. Hist. Soc. Stud., 5(1 and 2), 1962: 18-28.

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The prospects for regional economic cooperation in Asia, in the context of the wider problem of general economic development, especially with reference to the main socio-cultural trends in contemporary Ceylon are examined. Under colonial domination the societies of the Orient were faced with the economic, political and cultural challenge of the West. The reaction has been predominantly traditionalistic, and the populist movements correspond to the nativistic or revivalistic movements such as the Cargo Cults described by anthropologists. The mental attitude accompanying them has prevented the consolidation of the idea of the national state, and fissiparous trends such as the particularist linguistic and religious sub-groups, persist. These backward-looking idealogies have been inimical not only to regional cooperation, but also to general economic growth. For an outlook appropriate to a village-based, colonial economy, ill-adapted to the solution of current economic problems, is paralyzing economic development. The solution is to modernise the traditional societies of Asia, adopting a rational attitude to social and economic problems, following the example of Japan.

55A O'Brien, D.C., "The Limits of Political Choice in French West Africa: 1956 to 1960," Civilisations, 15 (2), 1965: 206-220.

1.01 In his survey the author considers five elements which, in his
view, have determined and limited the political choices in French
3.16 West Africa between 1956 and 1960: (1) the economic dependence
of these territories on France, which compelled them to co-oper-
5.064 ation with France; (2) the presence and power of Europeans in the
territorial economic and administrative structures also played an
7.02 important role in limiting political choice; (3) the administra-
tion interference in the political process, the moderate parties
7.07 receiving encouragement; (4) the political character of the African
elites must also be taken into consideration, since French rule was
based on subordination to tribal authorities; (5) lastly, the
structure and organization of the African political parties
accounts for their inefficiency to promote reforms. It must also be
noted that the failure of any form of Federation between the West
African States limited their scale of action considerably.

55B Eisenstadt, S.N., "Initial Institutional Patterns of Political Modernization," Civilisations, 12 (4), 1962: 461-472.

In many of the so-called new countries the goal of economic development is more of a political goal than a fact of economic life, and much of the fate of economic development is nowadays in the hands of the politicians. The central problem of political modernization of any system is to adapt to changing demands, to absorb them in terms of policy-making, and to assure its own continuity in the face of continuous new demands and new forms of political organization. The initial pattern of the establishment of the basic political framework can be of crucial importance as a prototype for the further stages of modernization, when new groups and strata become politically more active--although such a prototype need not necessarily continue unchanged later on.

Propositions

7.01 (1) If a country is modernizing politically, then--
(a) there is the development of a highly differentiated
7.232 political structure in terms of specific political rules
and institutions, of the centralization of the polity, and
7.10 of development of specific goals and orientations;
(b) it is characterised by growing extension of the scope of the
7.02 central, legal, administrative, and political activities
and their permeation into all spheres and regions of the
society;

(c) it is characterized by the continuous spread of potential political power to wider groups in the society, ultimately to all citizens;

(d) it is characterized by a weakening of the traditional elites and of traditional legitimation of the rulers and by the establishment of some sort of accountability (ideological and institutional) of the rulers to those who hold potential political power. (P. 462.)

Evidence: Speculation.

7.01 (2) If a nation is to develop a sense of political identity, then there must be established a set of basic political symbols and political and legal frameworks. (P. 469.)

Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

55C Hoselitz, Bert H., "Some Reflections on the Social and Cultural Conditions of Economic Productivity," Civilisations, 12 (4), 1962: 489-498.

3.11 A discussion of the socio-cultural factors influencing the
development of economic productivity, and working in interaction
3.19 with the following factors: (1) the relative amount of human and
non-human resources used in a productive process or system;
5.01 (2) the level of technology employed; (3) the skill of the working
population. The rapid technological, intellectual, and social
5.07 changes occurring 5,000 years before Christ, after the advent of
agriculture, are described as contingent on socio-cultural
5.062 attainments, such as the development of systems occurring over a
period of 4,000 years. It is suggested that while basic
6.16 techniques were immensely improved on from that epoch up to the end
of the Middle Ages, no major revolutionary discoveries occurred because the organization of society itself changed very little. "For a new basic revolution in productivity and economic organization to come about, the fundamental pattern of the old society had...to be replaced by one in which greater social mobility, greater access to power by the members of the previous lower classes, wider spread of education, and a new distribution of status in society were the rule." Modern institutionalization requires a "great" society of integrated parts functioning in harmony, and containing collective organizations such as mercantile companies, banks, corporations, and other public and private bodies exhibiting the capacity for mutual collaboration. In non-industrialised societies, familial and caste ties predominate, whereas in developed societies personal ties are replaced to a great extent by affiliations with larger groups. Such new forms of social organization have profound repercussions on the

individual level, developing a sense of time, duty, and discipline not present in the non-industrial man. Whether this change is paid for with increased anonymity and loneliness remains an open question. In any event, "the high level of productivity in modern industrial soceety is an outflow of new and modern culture complexes and social relations."

Propositions

3.11 (1) If an older, more status-bound social order is not replaced by a new one with greater social mobility, then the adoption of new techniques will be impeded. (P. 492.)
Evidence: Historical analysis.

6.01 (2) If, and only if, the social structure provides a need for educated individuals, then the number of educated individuals will increase. (P. 495.)
Evidence: Speculation.

5.062 (3) If a behavioral form is adopted by the middle class (if a middle class exists), then the chances of this form being adopted by the remainder of society increases. (P. 497.)
Evidence: Speculation.

55D Van den Berghe, Pierre L., "Indians in Natal and Fiji: A 'ConO trolled Experiment' in Culture Contact," Civilisations, 12 (1), 1962: 75-87.

1.020 A comparison between immigrant East Indian communities in
Fiji and South Africa reveals a number of similar adaptations to
1.052 broadly similar host societies. In both instances, Indians were
imported as indentured workers by the British government and
5.14 became the target of much discrimination and hostility on the part
of both the white colonial elite and the indigenous population.
Nevertheless, Indians adapted well to this new environment. They
learned English and became partly westernised, but retain their
faith in Hinduism or Islam and do not mix genetically with non-
Indians to any significant degree. Caste restrictions broke down
in nearly evey respect except endogamy, but the Indian family
retained considerable cohesion, despite the disruptive conditions
of indenture. In both cases, the Indian community overcame legal
and customary disabilities, and acquired a significant foothold
in skilled occupations, retail trade, and farming. The rate of
westernisation has been faster in Natal than in Fiji. In Natal,
where the Indians have been politically oppressed to a larger

extent than in Fiji, there arose a militant political protest leadership; this was not the case in Fiji.

Propositions

5.064 (1) If a population (or culture) is geographically relocated and
becomes a minority in another culture, then the original folk
5.14 culture will be weaned of much of its intellectual and philosophical content. (P. 77.)
Evidence: Case study of Indians emigrating from India to Natal and Fiji.

5.064 (2) (a) If a population constitutes a racial majority in a culture,
then it will have less difficulty improving its collective
5.14 status and living conditions.
(b) Inverse of above. (P. 81.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

5.064 (3) If a population (or subculture) is in a racial majority and
represents a traditional style of life, then efforts for
5.111 economic development by the minority will be impeded. (P. 82.)
Evidence: Differential growth ratio of the Indian-majority culture and the Indian-minority culture.

55E Beattie, John, "Democratization in Bunyoro: The Impact of Democratic Institutions and Values on a Traditional African Kingdom," Civilisations, 11 (1), 1961: 8-18.

1.021 The process of democratization can entail the provision of
increased political rights to the ordinary people, as well as the
4.14 limitation of political power to the rulers. Under the British
administration, political development in Bunyoro, a traditionally
7.03 oriented Bantu kingdom in western Uganda, has expressed both of
these aspects. The extension of the rights of the people was
7.232 attempted (1) through land-tenure reform, whereby it was sought
to replace the traditional system of tenanted estates by a system of peasant small-holdings, and (2) by the development of a hierarchy of councils advisory to chiefs. The powers of the rulers were restricted first by the gradual bureaucratization of the office of chief, chiefs now approximating rather to civil servants than to feudal lords, and second by the constitutional limitation of the king's power, especially regarding the appointment and dismissal of his officials. Though much has been achieved by these reforms,

the persistent traditional values of the Nyoro people, appropriate for the most part to a polity which no longer survives in its original form, have sometimes retarded this process of advancing democratization, and have in some cases resulted in new adaptations not always anticipated by the authorities concerned.

Propositions

(1) If institutional changes directed from outside the indigenous population are in direct conflict with values and procedures of the indigenous population, then the likelihood of the success of the change is decreased.
Evidence: Case study of Bunyoro (non-quantitative).

55F Fitzgibbon, Russell H., "Colombia as a Laboratory for Change," Civilisations, 11 (2), 1961: 130-139.

1.034 5.062 5.07 5.16 Latin America gained political independence in the nineteenth century, but remained in "a kind of economic colonialism," psychologically subordinate, and in a state of social stagnation. Changes have been wrought in the twentieth century all over Latin America, but for the precise study of social, political, and economic conditions, a focus on Colombia is suggested. Colombia occupies a middle position in Latin America with respect to population, area, and literacy. It has a government committed to political evolution rather than revolution, and notable political and social cohesion, despite the variety of geographic and demographic factors. The population is pluralistic, composed of: 12% Indians, 20% whites, 57% mestizos, 4% Negroes, and 14% mulattos. The urban structure of Colombia is complex; each of the individual important cities reflects the "collective personality" of the nation. Politics are monopolized by the upper class, though this is now changing: industrialization has created a large working class with important political potential. A middle class is emerging from small businesses, administration, and the trades. Land reform is the major rural issue, though the government, hampered by constitutional restrictions, has been slow to promote its projected social and economic reforms. The social and economic forces represented by the upper class large industrialists and the lower class labor unions are of great political importance. The Catholic Church, whose influence is declining, has also noted the need for socio-economic reforms, abandoning its traditional conservatism. These reforms are crucial to the peaceful evolution and development of Colombia and Latin America.

Propositions

No propositions.

55G Middleton, John, "Social Change, Among the Lugbara of Uganda," Civilisations, 10 (4), 1960: 446-456.

1.021 A discussion of social change among the Lugbara of Uganda,
focusing on the responses of the Lugbara to "the more salient
5.062 historical events of recent years." It is noted that "modern
government, involving the administration of justice, the collection
7.03 of taxes, and agricultural, medical, and other developments, demands
a bureaucracy of officials with specific training and duties and
7.13 with different values to those of a small-scale society based on
samll kinship groupings." The people filling these bureaucratic
7.231 positions "are tending to see themselves as distinct from the mass
of the population, and are regarded by the rest of the population
as being distinct. They are forming a new class...." Their values
are different from those of traditional Lugbara values based on
agnatic kinship as the overall organizing principle of society.
This new class is important in part because "its members exercise
great political and other power in local affairs." In this
situation of rapid change, "power is being taken from traditional
holders of authority and given to persons who have roles which did
not exist traditionally but which are an integral part of a modern
social system."

Propositions

5.062 (1) If in the process of change a new "class" emerges which is
made up of members of the indigenous population but espouses
7.03 the values of modernization, then these class members will
experience dilemmas in role-playing and will be "accepted"
by neither traditional leaders nor non-indigenous leaders.

Evidence: Study of new modernizing class among the Lugbara.

56A Stanner, W. E. H., "Sociological Problems of the Groundnut Scheme in Tanganyika," Colonial Review, 6, June 1949: 45-48.

1.122 This article is condensed from a paper read before the Royal
Anthropoligical Society on May 22, 1949. It presents the ethno-
4.11 graphic background and the social, political, and economic context
of the scheme, and then describes and explains the sociological
4.18 problems which have been encountered.

57A Fuggles-Couchman, N. R., "Agricultural Problems in Tanganyika," Corona, 12, December 1960: 451-454; and 13, January 1961: 16-19.

1.122 This is a general discussion of the difficulties that must be
overcome in order to increase peasant productivity: training in
4.09 improved farming methods, correct land-use, soil conservation, and
resettlement, the improvement of crop plants, and the introduction
4.10 of cash crops are among the requirements.

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Propositions

(1) The probability that an innovation will be adopted is decreased if traditional values are in opposition to the proposed change. (P. 452.)

Evidence: Case study of Tanganyika; gives example of how traditional forms of social organization present the adoption of desirable agricultural practices.

57B Soper, John, "Extension Work in Agriculture," Corona, 11, April 1959: 132-134.

1.122 This article discusses methods of persuading, rather than
compelling, African peasants to adopt improved agricultural prac-
4.09 tices. It is apparently based on experience in Tanganyika.

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58A Langley, M., "Agrarian Revolution in Africa," Commonwealth Development, 9(2), 1962: 13-16.

1.016 This article is a brief discussion of the transference of land
in Kenya and Southern Rhodesia and of the activities of the Land
1.030 Development and Settlement Board of Kenya and the Assisted Owner
Scheme which form the nucleus of land reapportionment. In Southern
4.15 Rhodesia two Acts have been vitally important: the Native Land
Husbandry Act of 1951 and the Land Apportionment Amendment Act of
1961. The Acts lead inevitably to individual African ownership in
urban as well as rural areas. The author states that the happiest
feature is that farmers of all races may farm along side of each
other.

58B McKenzie, B. R., "Agricultural Development in Kenya," Commonwealth Development, 8(3), 1961: 25-28.

1.016 An important feature of Kenya's agricultural policy is land
reform to enable people of any race to acquire land in the White
4.15 Highlands. The government is setting up a fund for land purchase.
It proposes to establish a series of resettlement schemes whereby
farmers of any race may acquire small-holdings on land purchased by
the government. At the same time the large-scale farmer and plantation
owner will be encouraged to stay in Kenya and to continue to
expand their production. The government's development policy
aims at a rapid emergence of African farming from subsistence agriculture
to a cash producing economy. Emphasis is laid upon the
expansion of cash crops such as coffee, tea, pyrethrum, cotton and
cashew-nuts and on the improvement of livestock. Details are
given on the ways the government is assisting the African farmer to
improve his methods of farming and stock breeding.

59A Rushbrook, Williams L. F., "The Renaissance of Rural Life in Pakistan," Commonwealth J., 6(5), 1963: 211-216.

1.022 The Village Agriculture and Industrial Development Movement in
Pakistan was founded in 1953 to raise the level of living of the
5.08 rural population. In the beginning, the village workers were
trained in the United States. Subsequently, three instruction
centers were set up in East Pakistan and six in West Pakistan.
The women were instructed in home economics, cooking methods, and

home sanitation, the farmers in improved cultural practices, simple building techniques, road alignment, etc. Results were better in East than in West Pakistan because of the higher level of literacy and of social and political awareness. Obstruction was met with from the great landlords, because they feared to lose the votes of their tenants needed for their political influence.

60A "Tanganyika's Largest Cooperative: Economic and Political Progress Among the Chagga People," Commonwealth Survey, 93, March 1952: 33-34.

1.022 The article describes the prosperity and progress achieved by an enterprising African society, the Kilimanjaro Native Cooperative
4.17 Union.

60B "Agriculture in Northern Rhodesia: Production, Conservation and Improving African Farming," Commonwealth Survey, 81, September 1951: 41-42.

1.124 This article provides information based on the 1950 report of the Northern Rhodesia Department of Agriculture, concerning food
4.12 crop production, soil conservation operations, and the improvement of African farming methods by means of extension, peasant farming
6.08 schemes, education, and the improved African farming scheme.

61A Smith, G. A., "Training for Trainers; A Guide For Agricultural Subject Matter Trainers," Community Devlpmt. B., 15(2), March 1964: 52-58.

1.130 This is a discussion of extension workers in Southern Rhodesia.

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61B Madawela, J. E. D., "Rural Development in Ceylon," Community Devlpmt. B., 12(3), June 1961: 94-97.

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61C Samlalsingh, R. S., "Rural Development on Sugar Estates," Community Devlpmt. B., 12(1), December 1960: 2-10.

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61D Sendut, H., "Problems of Rural-Urban Migration in Malaya," Community Devlpmt. B., 12(3), June 1961: 86-91.

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62A van der Kroef, J.M., "Asian Education and Unemployment: The Continuing Crisis," Compar. Educ. Rev., 7, October 1963: 173-180.

3.10 A discussion of the growing problem in Asia of the "educated unemployed" which examines its causes and some consequences. It is concluded that solution of the problem depends on a more harmonious development of education and the economy.

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62B Bowman, Mary Jean, "Converging Concerns of Economists and Educators," Compar. Educ. Rev., 6, October 1962: 111-119.

6.16 This article examines the rate-of-return of education. Areas of common interest to economists and educators are discussed.

62C Samonte, Quirici S., "Land Tenure and Public School Enrollment in the Philippines," Compar. Educ. Rev., 5, October 1961: 136-141.

1.026 Using the example of land-tenure patterns in the Philippines, the author shows how features of the socio-cultural setting may be relevant to the concerns of educational planners, even though not obviously related to the educational system.

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62D Vaizey, John, "Comparative Notes on Economic Growth and Social Change in Education," Compar. Educ. Rev., 5, June 1961: 7-12.

3.02 This article discusses indices of the relationship between economic growth and investment in education. Demographic, cultural, and social variables affecting education are mentioned.

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62E Vaizey, John, "Education as Investment in Comparative Perspective," Compar. Educ. Rev. 5, October 1961: 97-104.

3.02 The relationship between education and the economy are considered from both the individual and the national perspectives. Numerous factors influencing this relationship are considered.

6.16

62F Borghi, Lamberto, Scarangello, Anthony., "Italy's ten-year Education Plan," Compar. Educ. Rev. 4, June 1960: 26-30.

1.06 A critical commentary on the plan which argues in favor of
the coordination of the planning of education with that of other
6.14 social services if educational planning is to give maximum assis-
tance to development.

62G Kahan, Arcadius,,"The Economics of Vocational Training in the U.S.S.R.," Compar. Educ. Rev., 4, October 1960: 75-83.

1.06 This article deals with the development and problems of
vocational training in the U.S.S.R. from 1930 to 1958. The influ-
6.07 ence of ideology on educational outlook, incentive, the role of
women in vocations, labor supply and demand, and the contribution
of vocational training to U.S.S.R. are discussed.

63A Karve, D. G., "Co-operative Education — Retrospect and Prospect," Co-operative Studies, 5(1), January 1962: 10-17.

1.021 The author briefly refers to the development of co-operative
education in India, deals with the essential ingredients of a co-
4.17 operative way of life, and emphasizes the need to import the right
type of education to the future co-operators. It is felt that,
6.08 though the progress of the movement in this country in its essen-
tial aspects of mutual aid and mutual tolerance has not been quite
satisfactory, a program of radical improvement should not be very
difficult of fulfilment if we follow in the way of decentralization
and co-operativization of our life by making more and more people
in rural areas responsible for their own welfare and by extending
to them all possible help.

64A Keniston, Kenneth, "Accounding for Change," Comp. Studies Soc. Hist., 7 (2), January 1965: 117-126.

5.01 A comment on some of the major issues raised by F. Wyatt in his debate with R.J. Lifton regarding the viability of psychological concepts as explanations of historical change, especially regarding: (a) the "logic of explanation;" (b) the relevance of concepts approximating the normal curve; (c) the relationship between time-imagery and the psychodynamics of development; and (d) some problems regarding the attempt to use psychological concepts to explain historical change. Although history today may be seen as sociology applied to the "passage of historical time," history may in the future become "a kind of systematic psychology of historical currents and movements," provided that the historian becomes attuned to depth factors and that psychology itself become more historical rather than just "case-historical."

64B Goodrich, Carter, "Argentina as a New Country," Comp. Studies Soc. Hist., 7 (1), October 1964: 70-88.

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The failure of Argentina to develop at the same economic rate as Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and the greater part of the United States, though all these countries are within the same definition of "settlement" colony as set forth by Adam Smith, is discussed. Smith's corollary proposition that the tendency toward equality would show itself in that farmers would own the land they worked is true for the United States and Canada, and explainable regarding the nature of the crop in New Zealand and Australia. In Argentina, however, land ownership has remained in the hands of big owners. Today, development of the labor movement and social welfare programs are comparable to ownership of agricultural land. The reasons for Argentina's non-conforming development are indicated.

Propositions

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(1) The probability of economic development is increased if cultural values encourage rational economic behavior. (Pp. 79-80.)

Evidence: Historical analysis--that a factor in the different development of Argentina, when compared with countries of similar characteristics (such as the United States, Canada, and Austrialis) is the difference between the Spanish and Anglo-Saxon values.

64C Schneider, Harold K., "A Model of African Indigenous Economy and Society," Comp. Studies Soc. Hist., 7 (1), October 1964: 37-55.

1.01 The presumption that economic analytical techniques cannot be applied to indigenous African societies is challenged by pointing
3.01 out that livestock act as money, payment of bloodmoney is payment for destruction of capital, corporate unilineal descent groups
5.06 are capital loaning associations, the typical African homestead is a complex firm of which the husband or male head is a manager, and grain or other crop production is not just for subsistence but for the market. A sample of 48 African societies is chosen to study the functions of variation in bridewealth magnitudes. It is concluded that rates of divorce, residence of couples at marriage and disposal of a wife at the death of her husband are functions of magnitues of bridewealth. Most interestingly, the rarity of divorce is correlated very significantly with bridewealth payments of 20 head of cattle or more, or their equivalent in other livestock.

Propositions

No propositions.

64D Thrupp, Sylvia L., "Tradition and Development: A Choice of Views," Comp. Studies Soc. Hist., 6 (1), October 1963: 84-92.

5.01 Recent developmental studies have been under pressure to develop new hypotheses, a pressure which has led in three directions: (1) a retreat to existing schools of general theory, (2) toward the construction of models of the economic and political systems, and (3) toward the historical study of the origins of development. Conflicting views of the nature and function of tradition enter into these discussions. Differing views on tradition by J.J. Spengler and R. Braibanti in Tradition, Values and Socio-Economic Development (1961) and B.F. Hoselitz and W.E. Moore's Industrialization and Society (1963), are analyzed. Other works on tradition and development include G. Duby's L'Econonomie Rurale et la Vie des Campagnes dans l'Occident (Rural Economy and Life in Occidental Countries) (1962), in which he surveys the work that historians have done on the medieval records of agricultural life in western Europe. "His research perspectives are always informed by awareness that economic activity must be viewed in relation to the social milieu which affected its motivation."

Propositions

No propositions.

64E Tuma, Elias H., "Agrarian Reform in Historical Perspective," Comp. Studies Soc. Hist., 6 (1), October 1963: 47-75.

4.14 A presentation of empirical comparisons of agrarian reform movements, based on a larger study. The following agrarian reform movements are included: Solon's, Peisistrato's, and Gracchan; the Enclosures; and French, Russian Emancipation, Stolypin's, Soviet, Mexican, Japanese, and Egyptian. The study is based on 23 variables representing the background, objectives, processes, and effects of agrarian reform. The comparison suggests that unrestricted tenure tends towards concentrated landownership and unequal distribution of income and power. Hypotheses with implications for contemporary underdeveloped countries are suggested: (1) If the agrarian reform objective is to improve productivity, the scale of operation must be enlarged to allow investment of indivisible capital and modernization of techniques. (2) If the agrarian reform objective is to equalize income and wealth distribution, land must be redistributed, private ownership restricted, and land alienation regulated. (3) If the agrarian reform objective is to raise total production and per capita real income of the peasantry, without changing the pattern of distribution, labor productivity must be raised and underemployment reduced. This is possible by colonization and/or development of industry and commerce to absorb surplus rural population. (4) If the objective is a combination of all these, the respective conditions must be satisfied in combination. The pattern and success of agrarian reform depend on: (a) whether the agrarian reform preceded or followed a political upheaval, and (b) the strength and attitudes towards agrarian reform of the emerging and urban middle class. Land tenure agrarian reform can be useful in achieving short-run political objectives. It is inadequate for long-run political goals, such as creating a middle class, establishing a democracy, stabilizing the political system, or averting a revolution.

Propositions

4.14 (1) If the farming land in an underdeveloped country remains constant while the farm population continues to grow, then there
5.07 is a probability that the gap between rich and poor farmers will tend to widen unless urban areas absorb the excess population. (P. 52.)

Evidence: Comparative historical analysis of agrarian reform movements.

4.14 (2) If farming conditions deteriorate, then there is a probability that changes in the land-tenure system will follow or occur simultaneously with this deterioration. (P. 54.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

4.14 (3) If a reform of land tenure occurs which is the result of the efforts of one social class or group, then it is probable
5.062 that the nature of the reform will reflect economic values which this group perceives to be in its own interest. (P. 70.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

64F Shils, Edward, "Political Development in the New States: I," Comp. Studies Soc. Hist., 2 (3), April 1960: 265-292.

5.00 The elites of the "new states" of Africa and Asia, in their desire to become modern nations, conceive "modern" as: (1) dy-
5.01 namicism of the "welfare state," (2) equalitarian democracy, (3) scientific industrialization, and (5) national sovereignity.
7.01 Properties in common of the new states are: (1) recent independent sovereignity after a considerable period of Western rule, (2)
7.11 traditional social structure and culture, and (3) concern for modernization by elite. The influence of the struggle for modernity on the political system of the new state is examined in: (1) social structure (a) kinship, territory, and community governmental representation as it weakens government, (b) class structure--lack of middle class professional occupations and skilled workers, and class structure "gaps", (c) educational structure, (d) intellectuals--their Western acculuration, political passivity, and relationships with politicians, (e) disparity between urban modern and rural traditional forms, (f) economic development--emphasis on large-scale programs weakens the foundations of political democracy, (g) the hierarchal structure of authority, and (h) the "gap" between elite and masses; (2) culture (a) traditionality, (b) parochialism, nationality, and nationalism, and (c) traditional attitudes of "oppositional politics"; (3) personality--the insensitivity to individuality; and (4) political structure (a) universal suffrage, (b) parliament and politicians, (c) party system, (d) civil service, (e) the army, and (f) public opinion institutions. The possible types of political development are found in Part II.

64G Shils, Edward, "Political Development in the New States: II," Comp. Studies Soc. Hist., 2 (4), July 1960: 379-411.

After examining the political system of the new states of Africa and Asia, the alternative courses of political development of these states are listed as: (1) political democracy, (2) tutelary democracy, (3) modernizing oligarchy, (4) totalitarian oligarchy, and (5) traditional oligarchy. Each regime's characteristics is described and compared in its: (1) components; and (2) preconditions (a) stability, coherence, and effectiveness of the ruling elite, (b) the practice and acceptance of opposition, (c) adequate machinery of authority, (d) institutions of political order, and (e) the civil order. Modernization of the new states can only take place by closing the "gap" between the modernizing elite and the traditional masses, the prerequisite to a "civility" (a political society, i.e.,"one in which polity and society approximately coincide in their boundaries") modern in its economy, administration, and moral order. The closing of the gap can be accomplished only by the elite. Oligarchy is more compatible with "oppositional mentality", low development with individuality, and traditional order. However, democracy or modernizing oligarchy is probably the only way the gap can be closed. But, none of these alternatives is likely to materialize in their ideally conceived forms; what is more likely to materialize is a middle form, that of "disorderly oligarchy". The political systems of the new states will not be fashioned after the liberal constitutional models of Europe but of the more modern polities of the United States and Soviet societies

Propositions

7.05
7.12
(1) If in a given country litigation is a topic of popular discussion or a form of popular entertainment, then government legislation favoring one social class over another will produce more conflict and resentment among the people. (P. 269.)
Evidence: Author's unsubstantiated generalization.

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(2) If the intellectual class in developing countries is concentrated in the cities, then there is a probability that the socio-political gap between urban and rural populations will grow and conflict will develop. (P. 272.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

5.16
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7.13
(3) If a country is characterized by a markedly religious orientation to the abnegation of individual dignity and individual worth, then there is a probability that a democratic type of government will not evolve. (P. 286.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

65A Lewis, W. Arthur, "Educatinn for Scientific Professions in the Poor Countries," Daedalus, 91(2), Spring 1962: 310-318.

6.06

6.07

The poor countries need three types of persons trained scientifically beyond the high school level: technicians, basic scientists and professionals. A number of arguments point toward reducing the amount of basic science in professional courses in these countries. Schools have less practical work in their backgrounds and less experience with mechanical devices. More time is needed to accustom them to using their hands. Most universities require the student to familiarize himself with every aspect of his profession, and he has relatively less time for basic science: specialization is postponed until post-graduate work. The professional must also learn more rapidly. Moreover, his status in society is continuously being affected by the changes taking place. The argument for maintaining the amount of basic science taught is equally strong: in his isolation, the professional must have a sound training in basic principles. It is felt that if the professional standard is to be high, courses should be a year or so longer to allow for inferior background, the need for more practical work, the incorporation of local materials, and the need for a greater emphasis on social studies. It is suggested that a large number of fundamental research stations be established around the globe.

66A Fukutake, T., "Change and Stagnation in Indian Village Society," Developing Econ., 2(2), June 1964: 125-146.

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66B Takigawa, T., "Landownership and Land Reform Problems of the Philippines," Developing Econ., 2(1), March 1964: 58-77.

1.026

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67A Lewis, W. Arthur, "Economic Problems of Developkent," Development Research Digest, 1(3), January 1963: 1-14.

3.01 In this paper, the author highlights some of the tensions
associated with the development process, and indicates some of
6.16 the difficulties which education can help to overcome.

68A "Development Plan for Southern Rhodesia," East Africa and Rhodesia, 39, October 1962: 169-171.

1.130 This article contains extracts from The Development of the
Economic Resources of Southern Rhodesia, with Particular Reference
4.01 to the Role of African Agriculture, the report of an advisory
committee. The report stresses the need for increased cooperation
4.05 between the European and African communities. Agriculture is
expected to play the major role in the development for a long time
4.06 to come, and the committee recommends the establishment of a
Ministry of Agriculture, Lands and Water Development as the most
4.17 suitable organization for the development of agriculture in
African areas. Recognized methods of development, such as agri-
7.231 cultural extension, demonstration, and education, cooperatives,
short-and medium-term credit, cheaper supplies of fertilizers,
irrigation schemes, and efficient marketing organizations are to
be strengthened.

69A Sinha, Surajit, "Levels of Economic Initiative and Ethnic Groups in Pargana Barabhum," East. Anthropol., 16 (2), May-August 1963: 65-74.

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The people of Baradhum in South Manbhum tend to show variation in economic initiative, with a notable correlation between ethnic affiliation and level of economic initiative. Economic attitudes may be arranged by general categories, i.e.: (1) tribal, characterized by a lack of farsighted investments and having prolonged social and religious ceremonies; (2) peasant, characterized by hard-headed concern for the expansion of agricultural property; (3) the professional trader, characterized by concern with increasing capital by careful calculation of diverse economic engagements; and (4) the gentry, characterized by their concern with the expansion of wealth but not willing to work systematically and hard.

Propositions

1.021
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(1) If economic initiative is controlled by perceived opportunities for social advancement, then it is probable that a caste system will be characterized by differential striving for economic success. (P. 70.)

Evidence: Case study of the people of Baradhum in South Manbhum, India.

1.021
3.15
5.062

(2) If economic initiative is guided by caste tradition, then certain castes will probably have a decided advantage in economic competition between two or more castes. (P. 70.)

Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

70A Blyth, C.A., and G.A. Crothall, "A Pilot Programming Model of New Zealand Economic Development," Econometrica, 33(2), 1965: 357-381.

1.06 The optimal allocation of resources in New Zealand is analyzed
by applying linear programming methods to a general equilibrium
3.01 model. A rich range of economic results--particularly in respect
of bottlenecks--is obtained by examining near optimal and dual
3.02 solutions. Changing the data by means of sensitivity analysis
reveals the changes in investment, production, the exchange rate,
3.17 and wage policies that follow changes in export prices, import
prices, technology, and the labor force. The effect of minimum
and maximum wage policies is examined by adding special restraints
to the dual problem.

The output of the economy has been divided into commodity groups (e.g., farm products,) which can be supplied from home production or from imports, and which can be produced at home from existing capital or from investment in new plant and equipment. In some cases there is a choice of type of investment (e.g., labor intensive compared with capital intensive). Resources have differing efficiencies in different occupations and investments, and with the set of resources and technological possibilities we ask what patterns of production and investment will give the greatest level of consumption (according to some specified pattern of consumption).

With resources and export prices similar to those in 1954-55, a target chosen then which would have given the highest incomes per head and maintained full employment, would have been based on an exchange rate of £90 N.Z. = £100 Sterling, would have aimed to raise real wages by 17 percent, and would have concentrated new investment in manufacturing industries with a high local raw material content and low labor-capital ratios. The proportion of output exported (and imported) would have declined. Imports competitive with local manufacturing would have been negligible, while 36 per cent of all fuel and power used would have been imported. The biggest bottlenecks in the economy would be labor and manufacturing capital rather than foreign exchange or farming resources. A 10 per cent increase in wool prices would result in a complete switch in the target from meat to wool exports showing that the choice between meat and wool is a fine one. With the high level of wool prices, target investment in new manufacturing would decline and shift into channels with higher import contents. Levels of imports and exports would be higher. Target income per head (or consumption per head) would be higher, but not the real wage as the income distribution associated with this target would be in favor of owners of farming resources.

Because labor (as distinct from land or fixed capital) is a bottleneck in the basic target, the target real wage is very sensitive to labor force increases (e.g., by immigration). If the labor force were increased by some 10 per cent over its present levels, target income per head would decline slightly while real wages would fall quickly in the face of the substantial income redistribution. These results reveal a relationship of considerable economic and political interest. In a free, competitive economy, increase in export prices of farm products and increases in the labor force (under existing conditions with existing resources) have similar effects: a redistribution of income from labor to the owners of farming resources, and a fall in real wages.

Propositions

No propositions; linear programming methods are applied to a general equilibrium model.

70B Gesser, Micha, "Schooling and the Farm Problem," Econometrica, 33(3), 1965: 582-592.

4.09 The article is an econometric study of the relationship between the level of schooling in rural farm areas and incomes
5.10 of farm workers. The study shows that more schooling in rural farm areas will accelerate the process of farm out-migration,
6.081 thus reducing the level of poverty among farmers.

Propositions

5.10 (1) The probability of migration from rural areas increases with increasing amounts of education. (P. 591.)
6.081 Evidence: Regression analysis of census data (United States data only).

70C Stoleru, Lionel, "An Optimal Policy for Economic Growth," Econometrica, 33(2), 1965: 321-348.

3.01 The purpose of this article is to determine the best way to allocate investment in an underdeveloped country where there is
3.02 severe unemployment. The words "best way" are made precise by specifying two goals: (1) to reach full employment as soon as
3.03 possible in such a way that balanced growth is possible afterward; and (2) to produce a maximum total discounted amount of consumer
3.09 goods. A refinement of this criterion adds the constraint that a minimum level of per capita consumptions is fixed each year.

The method of study is to build a simple two-sector model with a capital goods sector and a consumer goods sector, in both of which fixed coefficients of production prevail. The optimal investment allocation between the two sectors is then the solution of a problem in the calculus of variations. Such a solution is obtained by using Pontryagin's Maximum Principle. In order to derive precise economic implications of the optimal policy, numerical data corresponding to the case of Algeria (1960), where unemployment is a crucial issue, are used. The model is then expanded to consider foreign aid and, after a description of the corresponding general optimal policy, a detailed description of prospective economic growth is given.

The general conclusion is that there is an optimal value for the minimum per capita consumption level in each year. The optimal investment policy will be to invest in the capital goods sector at the highest rate compatible with keeping per capita consumption at a level not less than the required minimum during the first phase, and then to shift all investment to the consumer goods sector in the second phase. Finally, the economy expands along the balanced growth path during the last stage. These results are fairly independent of the numerical data so that great emphasis has been put on the methodological aspect rather than on the numerical computations.

Propositions

No propositions; largely methodological treatment.

70D Tsiang, S.C., "A Model of Economic Growth in Rostovian Stages," Econometrica, 32(4), 1964: 619-648.

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3.02
This paper gives a non-linear growth model, which explains the development of an economy through stages somewhat similar to the Rostovian stages. Non-linearity is introduced by including the inaugmentable factor of land or natural resources in the production function along with labor and capital, and by recognizing that net saving is not a linear homogeneous function of income alone, but might be affected by the distribution of income and the interest rate and tends to be negative when per capita income is very low. Furthermore, population growth is assumed to follow a Neo-Malthusian pattern. The effects of non-neutral as well as neutral technical progress are discussed in this paper.

Propositions

No propositions; deals with methodology.

71A Caravale, Giovanni, "Differential Oligopoly and the Development Process," Economia Internzionale, 18 (1), 1965:

3.01 The author first recalls how the two major theories which stand in opposition to the theory of perfect competition, that is,
3.08 the theory of imperfect, or monopolistic, competition and the modern theory of oligopoly both seek to make the analysis more realistic by altering some of the assumptions underlying the neo-classical general equilibrium model. The first of these two theories introduces the notion of imperfections in competition and of product differentiation, and analyses the consequences of the existence of as many separate markets as there are differentiated products within one group of goods; but this theory retains from the model of perfect competition the assumption of a large number of small producers in each group. The modern theory of oligopoly has abandoned this latter assumption and analyses the effects of the existence of only a few large producers on the volume of output, employment, the pace at which technical progress is introduced, etc.; on the other hand, this theory retains the assumption of homogeneity of products.

The author then goes on to discuss the connection between oligopoly and technical progress in more detail. He argues that if writers like Bain, Sylos Labini and others come to the conclusion that oligopoly holds up the rate of development and of the introduction of technical progress, that is essentially due to their assuming product homogenity within the oligopolistic model. By introducing the more realistic assumption of product differentiation, it can be shown that an oligopolistic market structure is capable of playing a positive part in the development process, on condition that there is a possibility of entry for new firms. A situation of this type can give rise to competitive pressures which stimulate oligopolistic firms to make use of their greater capacity of innovation and so effectively counteract the forces whichwould towards a concentration of production and work, if left free play, tend to slow down the rate of introduction of technical progress and hence the rate of development in the system.

71B Bottomly, Anthony, "Stability of Income and Employment in an Underdeveloped Semi-Desert Community," Economia Internzionale, 17 (2), 1964: 301-316.

1.013 This article considers steps which might be taken to stabilize the Libyan economy. The following factors are considered:
3.08 supplemental feed, processing animal products, marketing of animals, cereal production and storage, United States gift wheat,
3.172 irrigation, diversification.

4.13

Propositions

3.03 (1) If a peoples have a short life expectancy, then it is diffi-
cult to induce them to make investments which make a yield
5.07 only in the very long run. (P. 305.)

Evidence: Refers to the experience of development technicians in Libya with Arab farmers.

71C Mamalakis, Markos J., "'Forced Saving' in Underdeveloped Countries: A Rediscovery or a Misapplication of a Concept?", Economia Internzionale, 17 (3), 1964: 403-436.

3.01 Though the distinction between forced and voluntary saving, and
the attendant emphasis on saving as the scarce factor limiting
3.03 growth, has proven valuable in the analysis of the experience of
West European countries, it is not very applicable to all less
7.231 developed countries because: (a) the "full employment" assumption
underlying the notion is not always satisfied. The classical "full employment" situation of a monetary, two sector (capital plus consumer goods), market-oriented economy differs from the "full employment" of the quasi- or non-monetary, with family-based and family-oriented production, mainly one-sector (only consumer goods) less developed economies. (b) Savings are not scarce but abundant and unutilized in many countries and it cannot, therefore, be agreed that credit expansion is necessary or even always desirable. (c) The allocation assumption, according to which funds in the hands of businessmen are always invested productively, is not always satisfied. The flow of investment opportunities involving production is often incomplete, inelastic, and unstable; socially unproductive investment opportunities are present, and significant; the inducement to exploit productive investment opportunities is strongly impaired by the (mostly inflation-induced) high profitability or unproductive investment options; and finally, a high "willingness to invest" may be unable to materialize, if the "feasibility of investment," i.e., the capacity to import and produce capital goods, is limited. Above all it is argued that inflationary policies should not be pursued unless it is made certain that the assumptions underlying forced saving are satisfied.

It is suggested that for a great many less developed countries the main constraint lies in a low profitability of investment and/or an inadequate capacity to produce or import goods, rather than in low savings. Policies raising rates of return and the "feasibility" or capacity to invest should then be preferred to inflation.

Propositions

No propositions.

71D Qayum, A., "Long-Term Growth of a Developing Economy," Economia Internzionale, 17 (1), 1964: 437-447.

1.021 Aggregative models of economic growth that have been recently constructed are generally based on the assumptions of a constant
3.01 rate of savings and fixed capital-output ratio. Both of these assumptions may be realistic in the context of developed economies,
3.03 but they are unrealistic and unjustified while dealing with developing economies. For the latter are mostly characterised by increasing rates of savings and technological adjustments. In this paper a simple model has been presented which contains increasing rates of savings and also possibilities of factor substitution. For brevity and simplicity only two factors of production, labour and capital, have been considered and Cobb-Douglas production function has been used. Introducing the rough estimates of rates of savings and rate of increase of labour power in the model, the approach of the India planners in assuming increasing capita-output ratios in successive plans is found to be justified, though their estimates about the movement of per capita-income seem to have been defective.

The model then has been inverted in a way to answer the more pertinent question in developing economies: what should be the rate of savings for achieving a given rate of growth of income? As the model in this form is not exactly soluble, an illustration has been given through a numerical solution.

Propositions

No propositions; model analysis.

71E Delivanis, D.J., "The Foreign Trade Policy in Developing Regions," Economia Internzionale, 16 (1), 1963: 1-20.

3.01 The foreign trade policy of a developing country tries to assure the achievement of the equilibrium of the balance of pay-
3.04 ments, the protection of local production and the reinforcement of development. It exerts a substantial influence on the economic
3.16 structure of the country concerned, on prices, on incomes, on employment and on the national income. The measures applied are

either directly related to foreign policy, such as customs duties, subsidies for both importers and exporters, quotas and administrative protectionism, or depend on the monetary policy. In the second group devaluation, revaluation and multiple exchange rates are included. It goes without saying that usually the enforcement is not perfect, as the administration in developing countries is frequently inefficient.

71F Sengupta, J.K. and Gerhard Tintner, "On Some Economic Models of Development Planning," Economia Internzionale, 16 (1), 1963: 34-52.

1.021 Recent applications of aggregative and disaggregative models
of economic growth to problems of national planning and development
3.01 have led to interesting generalizations by introducing
intersectoral parameters and constraints and the optimizing considerations
3.07 involved in the operational decision making of a policy
maker. A comparative appraisal of the operational aspects of the
planning models in India and the Netherlands is attempted in this
paper with a view to suggest some extensions of the former
planning model. Our suggested extensions include the interpretation
of the planning model in India in terms of: a balanced
growth path and the cost of deviation therefrom, a set of flexible
coefficients, a type of nonlinearity in the production function and
the active approach of stochastic programming. A convex objective
function and the active approachare introduced in the latter case
and it is shown how the policy maker could select the allocation
ratios in some optimal sense. Alternative decision rules could
easily be specified when the statistical distribution of the
objective function is estimated. By means of an empirical application
this method of allocation on the basis of an approach of
stochastic programming is illustrated.

71G Bhambri, R.S., "Customs Unions and Underdeveloped Countries," Economia Internzionale, 15 (2), 1962: 235-258.

2.02 The article examines the various factors behind the urge to
form customs unions and free trade areas among underdeveloped
3.02 countries. This paper concentrates on a discussion of the chief
advantages as well as the major drawbacks of forming customs
3.18 unions in the existing conditions of disequilibrium in the underdeveloped
countries.

Our analysis suggests that, (a) customs unions can help to accelerate the pace of economic growth, while a free trade area would not do much to increase either intra-regional trade or the rate of economic growth; (b) free trade would arrest the growth of industry in the relatively less developed countries.

Finally, we analyze the inadequacy of various proposals to ensure equal development of all countries and suggests some measures which would achieve this purpose.

Propositions

No propositions.

71H Bhatt, V.V., "A Decade of Planned Development: The Indian Experience," Economia Internzionale, 15 (2), 1962: 347-366.

1.021 Given the condition of India's economy when she achieved independence, state planning was inevitable. India is unique 3.07 in having undertaken extensive planning within the context of a democratic ideology. The questions of construction of heavy industry, the utilization and the necessity of external assistance are discussed.

Propositions

7.12 (1) In a democratic system the probability of socio-political unrest will be increased if there is widespread unemployment. (P. 359.)

Evidence: Unsubstantiated assertion.

72A Jaska, E., "Agriculture and Economic Development," *Econ. Annal.*, 34(4), August 1964: 85-91.

3.01 4.01 The problem of economic growth is particularly acute in the many underdeveloped countries of the world. Progress is hampered by the lack of capital and of technical and managerial skills, and by the progressive deterioration in the balance of trade *vis-a-vis* the developed countries. Low income and the preponderance of agriculture as an occupation and a source of income are the common denominator of the developing countries. Economic development is thus clearly linked to the agricultural situation in the developing countries. Despite the fact that agriculture in developing countries contributes between 40 and 60% of the national income and employs 50 to 80% of the labor force, the "big push" school of development gives priority to industrialization and assigns agriculture a very secondary role. Recently, the "balanced growth" school has elevated agriculture to a primary position in the promotion of restrained economic growth.

Propositions

3.01 4.01 (1) If economic development is to take place, then the first stage in that development *must* be agricultural development.
Evidence: Speculative.

73A Sarkar, Subhash Chandra, "Economics of Scheduled Tribes," *Econ. Affairs*, 7(1), January 1962: 57-64, and 104-113.

1.021 7.22 7.232 In this article the author has analyzed the data on the economic aspects of tribal population in India contained in the report of the scheduled areas and scheduled tribes commission appointed by the Government of India. The population of scheduled tribes in India in 1956 has been estimated at 22,511,854 or about 6.25% of the total populaioon of the country; they are depending for their livelihood mainly on agriculture, animal husbandry, forestry and cottage industries. Wide disparities in the economic conditions of the tribal societies as indicated by the per capita availability of land, irrigated area commanded, extent of indebtedness, dependence on subsidiary occupations, etc. have been brought out by the analysis. The author has reemphasized the commission's recommendations for promotion co-operation among the tribal population in their various activities.

74A "Co-ordination of Development Plans in Africa," *Econ. Bull. Africa, Addis Ababa*, 4(1), 1964: 39-63.

1.01 After an introduction, the paper is divided into five main
sections. (1) The political, social and economic setting in Africa,
2.03 of which the economic setting is divided into (a) structure of the
economy, (b) foreign trade, (c) intra-African trade, (d) preferen-
3.01 tial systems, currency areas and current economic groupings, (e)
Africa and the European Economic Community. (2) The strategy of
3.03 economic development in Africa; (a) the strategy of economic devel-
opment, (i) export of primary commodities, (ii) export-oriented
3.07 industrialization, (iii) industrialization aimed at the domestic
market; (b) the need for co-ordinated development, (i) the economic
3.08 basis for co-ordination, (ii) some examples. (3) Implications of
the strategy of co-ordinated development; (a) attempts toward eco-
3.10 nomic unity, (b) some problems in the way of economic co-ordination,
(c) agricultural growth, (d) transport and communication, (e) major
3.12 multi-national projects, (f) social infrastructure, (g) development
planning, (h) other areas. (5) Main lines of co-ordinated action;
3.13 (a) the work of the Economic Commission for Africa and other United
Nations agencies, (b) toward the co-ordination of development plans.
3.16

74B "Social Aspects of African Development Planning: Patterns and Trends," *Econ. Bull. Africa, Addis Ababa*, 4(1), 1964: 64-101.

1.01 The study lays special emphasis on the general level of African
development, the planned allocations of public expenditures to the
4.17 different social sectors and the financing of social services. It
covers, among other things, the structural changes envisaged,
income targets and income distribution, the relative emphasis
between economic and social objectives and programs, the share of
resources devoted to social sectors, investment criteria, social
priorities stressed, special area of regional programs, and the
employment contents of the plans. A summary of the main features
of a selected number of development plans is presented in tabular
form.

74C Shaw, D. J., "A Note on Sudan's Ten Year Plan of Economic and Social Development," *Econ. Bull. Africa, Addis Ababa*, 3, June 1963: 58-72.

1.128

4.06

74D "Some Problems of Social Development Planning in Relation to Economic Development," Econ. Bull. Africa, Addis Ababa, 2(2), June 1962: 33-42.

1.01 The article is an endeavor to show how the planning of social services, in which education is included, can be brought in close
5.04 relation with the planning of economic development.

6.01

75A Economic Commission for Latin America, United Nations, "Rural Settlement Patterns and Social Change in Latin America: Notes for a Strategy of Rural Development," Econ. Bull. Latin Amer., 10(1), March 1965: 1-21.

1.03 This paper attempts to present a composite picture of rural settlement patterns and the influences that are changing them.
1.04 Recognizing the diversity that exists in local situations, the author attempts to generalize the patterns and influences to all
4.15 of Latin America. The paper classifies rural settlement types; it notes the influences of history, geography, and land tenure upon
7.232 settlement patterns and local organization; it examines administrative and political structures and rural settlement patterns; it analyzes social relationships in the rural nuclei; it notes economic functions of the rural nuclei; it examines public policy and rural settlement patterns; and it comments about research needs.

75B Economic Commission for Latin America, United Nations, "An Agricultural Policy to Expedite the Economic Development of Latin America," Econ. Bull. Latin Amer., 6(2), October 1961: 1-11.

1.03 This is an analysis of the problems of Latin American agriculture and the means by which they might be overcome. Latin
1.04 American development cannot be achieved unless a development program is formulated for each specific case and programming machinery
4.03 is established on a continuous and permanent basis. If any measure can be considered a prerequisite to the success of others, it is
4.06 land reform. Investments in rural public works and in the improvement of the rural infrastructure would not require a high input of
4.14 capital and would provide full employment to rural workers who are unable to find immediate employment in agriculture proper.

76A Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East, United Nations, "Approaches to Regional Harmonization of National Development Plans in Asia and the Far East," Econ. B. Asia and Far East, 15 (3), December 1964: 33-78.

1.02 This comparative analysis is an attempt to promote regional
and national co-ordination among the developing countries of Asia
3.18 and the Far East. More rapid and efficient economic development
can be achieved "through joint endeavor and common action." Production and consumption tables of various economic products in Asian countries point out or suggest possible benefits of regional cooperation and co-ordination.

76B Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East, United Nations, "Some Asoects of Input-Output Relationships in Asian Agriculture," Econ. Bull. Asia-Far East, 15(2), 1964: 1-17.

1.02 This article covers only a few selected countries of the ECAFE
region for which data were available, and it is stressed that even
4.03 the data themselves are by no means sufficient or completely
comparable among the countries covered. Because of this, refined
4.09 methods of analysis could not be used and thus the conclusions
should be regarded as tentative and in need of revision when more
4.11 and better data become available. After an introduction, Section
II examines the characteristics of input structure of paddy and
4.12 wheat production in Japan, the Republic of Korea and parts of
India and Thailand. Section III deals with input-output of cost-output ratios. Section IV considers the functional relationships between input and output. The broad conclusion from the study is that the average output expands with increasing inputs until a point is reacher after which any further input will reduce the absolute output, that the marginal productivity of total input seems to be higher in U.P. than in West Bengal, and that it is higher on irrigated wheat and wheatgrain than on non-irrigated farms. Agriculture in many selected locations throughout the world is far more capital using than in India, but the marginal productivity of capital in these countries is generally higher than in India, suggesting that what is needed in Indian agriculture is a new technology giving a much higher marginal return to capital.

76C Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East, United Nations, "Relationship Between Agricultural and Industrial Development: A Case Study in Taiwan, China," Econ. B. Asia and Far East, 14(1), June 1963: 29-70.

1.028 This case study of Taiwan's industry and agriculture is
intended to shed light on economic development in other "underveloped
3.01 economics experiencing rapid growth." Defences, expenditures,
foreign aid, and inflation are emphasized. Taiwan's
4.01 differential growth in the agricultural and industrial sectors of
the economy and the problems arising because of this make the
3.07 findings of this suudy applicable to most developing economies.

4.06

76D "Criteria for Allocating Investment Resources Among Various Fields of Development in Underdeveloped Economies," Econ. Bull. Asia and Far East, 12(1), 1961: 30-44.

1.02 The same rate of investment may have widely differing effects
in advancing the development of an economy, depending on how and
3.01 where that investment is applied. Hence the importance of investment
criteria, especially in underdeveloped economies which are
3.16 short of capital and urgently need rapid economic growth. These
criteria are briefly discussed. The bibliography comprises 67
4.01 items, divided into the following sectinns: general, balance of
payments, industry, agriculture, and water resources development.

4.03

76E Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East, United Nations, "Economic Development and Planning in Asia and the Far East. Social Aspects," Econ. B. for Asia and the Far East, 10(3), December 1959:

1.02 This publication is the fifth in a series of studies prepared
by the secretariat of the Economic Commission for Asia and the Far
3.07 East on the subject of economic development and planning. The work
begins with some detailed considerations on the relations between
5.11 economic and social factors in economic growth, and on the concept
of a balanced development. An outline is then given of the experience
5.12 of ECAFE Member States in social planning, including educational
planning. The authors of the study next attempt to assess
7.231 the extent to which certain social transformations and the prerequisites
to economic development and analyze several social consequences
7.232 of the development of a modern economy and labor force in
underdeveloped countries.

The problem of coordination between efforts to achieve economic progress and social progress, which are both complementary and competitive, is then tackled and, in this connection, the concept of human investment is rapidly analyzed; some indication is given of the difficulties of trying to measure the economic output value of certain social programs, and the absence of any systematic theory at the time of publicatinn which could serve as a basis on which to construct a coordinated and integrated program of economic and social development.

The authors also examine certain financial and technical problems in planning, and describe the administrative machinery that has been set up in India and Ceylon for the preparation and execution of plans.

This study, which is illustrated by numerous concrete examples, deals both with educational planning and with the planning of other social activities. Educational problems are often taken as examples or are subjected to special study in view of the close links existing between education and economic development.

77A Cash, Webster C., "A Critique of Manpower Planning and Educational Change in Africa," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 14(1), 1965: 33-47.

1.01 The postulates underlying the use of high-level manpower planning for the purpose of social and economic development are
3.02 examined and a new approach to planning educational change is explored. The main conclusions are: (1) that the validity of
6.01 the high-level manpower techniques as a means for fostering economic development or for sustaining a rate of economic growth
6.13 in the new nations of tropical Africa cannot be demonstrated; (2) that its use will almost certainly not have the results sought
6.14 and expected; and (3) that the alternative approach (the scarce resources available for educational development in each nation should be husbanded according to a scale of priorities which reflects, however crudely, the rate of return to society from enlargement of different educational services) would be preferable; because it would (a) focus talent and effort upon the crucial domestic issues of development, (b) increase the flexibility of planning procedures, and (c) evaluate the importance for economic development of the so-called "nonproductive" components of education.

Propositions

No propositions.

77B Davis, T.E., "Changing Conceptions of the Development Problem: The Chilean Example," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 14(1), 1965: 21-32.

1.035 After a brief outline of the theory of economic growth or development, the inter-relationship between evolving development
3.01 theory (and strategy) and official policy is discussed. The adaptations in theory and strategy are then described, required a each stage to produce greater conformity with the apparent Chilean circumstances. Finally, implications of the newer development theory and strategy for development policy are analyzed.

Propositions

3.02 (1) The probability of economic development will be increased if investment in human capital increases. (Pp. 30-31.)
6.13 Evidence: Unsubstantiated; Davis refers indirectly to the general current consensus on the need for investment in human resources.

77C Fogg, C.D., "Economic and Social Factors Affecting the Development of Smallholder Agriculture in Eastern Nigeria," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 13(3), 1965: 278-292.

1.012 An examination is made of the means available to develop
agriculture in Nigeria, noting the social and economic barriers.
4.03 Comments are for the most part limited to Eastern Nigeria, although
they are also applicable to the southern part of Nigeria
4.05 and to many tropical African countries having similar economic
conditions. Five basic approaches to agricultural development
4.07 are being tried or considered in Eastern Nigeria: (1) commercial
plantations; (2) nucleus plantations; (3) settlement schemes;
4.08 (4) smallholder "investment" schemes; (5) smallholder "improvement"
schemes. Output/input ratios for planatation, settlement, smallholder
4.11 investment and smallholder improvement schemes under conditions
operating or contemplated in Eastern Nigeria are given in
4.14 tabular form, and are commented upon. The input/output ratios for
nucleus plantations are about the same as those for regular plantations
4.16 and are, therefore, not listed separately. It is postulated
that agricultural development on areas similar to Eastern
4.181 Nigeria should be divided into the following stages: (1) smallholder
development; (2) continuation of smallholder development
4.182 and introduction of larger production units. Empirical evidence
shows a fairly high degree of economic motivation among the
4.183 various tribes in Eastern Nigeria and it is postulated that the
degree of acceptance of new agrarian techniques partially depends
4.184 on the magnitude of monetary return and the timing of the return.
Economic barriers to successful smallholder schemes are summarized
as: (1) limited government capital; (2) scarce capital among
peasant farmers; (3) market imperfections; (4) limitations of
land; (5) labor limitations; (6) lack of efficient processing
facilities; (7) limiting factors of time and distance on extension
agents. Social barriers to smallholder development are summarized
as: (1) inertia and fear of failure; (2) fear of loss of prestige
through failure; (3) bias against agriculture; (4) short time
horizon; (5) non-economic calls on capital. Suggestions are made
for development tactics: (1) optimum use of capital; (2) improved
marketing facilities; (3) processing facilities; (4) price controls.

Propositions

1.012 (1) The probability that individuals will adopt a change is increased if a material benefit will result. (P. 285.)

5.121 Evidence: Example of adoption of cocoa, cashews, and poultry by farmers in Eastern Nigeria when there was a profit to be made from these products.

1.012 (2) The probability of economic development will be decreased if
traditional values oppose behavior essential to economic
5.122 development. (P. 288.)
Evidence: Example of the traditional African pattern
of day-to-day living precluding investment in projects
having a very long-range return.

1.012 (3) The probability that change will be accepted increases if
education is increased. (P. 288.)
3.19 Evidence: Unsubstantiated, but presumably a generalization from the African experience.

5.12

6.16

77D Kunkel, J.H., "Values and Behavior in Economic Development," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 13(3), 1965: 257-277.

3.01 A model based on principles formulated in experimental
psychology is presented in some detail; it is one of several
5.01 utilizing the behavioral approach to the explanation of human
activities. The model is concerned with the overtly expressed
5.121 activities of individuals and their relations to the earlier and
current surrounding social structures and physical conditions.
5.122 According to the behavioral model, the psychological prerequisites
of economic development are certain behavior patterns, whereas the
5.123 social prerequisites are the determinants of the reinforcing and
discriminative stimuli by means of which desired behavior patterns
are shaped and maintained. Definitions are presented of the terms
"values," "attitudes," "personality," and "process of internalization." The difficulties encountered when these concepts are
considered as causal factors, and the advantages of considering
them from the behavioral point of view are then presented. It is
concluded that since usually only a few aspects of the societal
environment can be altered, present efforts to create behavioral
prerequisites must begin on a small scale.

Propositions

No propositions; development of model analysis.

77E Strumpel, B., "Preparedness for Change in a Peasant Society,"
Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 13(2), 1965: 203-216.

1.036 In investigating the prospects of economic development of a
population with relatively little contact with civilization, an
5.01 attempt is made to formulate some of the more intuitive hypotheses
of psychological determinants. The analysis limits itself to
5.10 explaining behavioral patterns of individuals closely connected
with economic progress, such as basic changes in production
5.123 methods, immigration to the city and change to industrial occupa-
tions. British Honduras with its ethnically heterogeneous popu-
5.15 lation (in order of predominance: Creoles, Maya and Hispano
Indians, Caribs, Europeans and Asiatics) and its dependent econo-
6.01 my proved itself ideal for such an investigation. A representa-
tive sample of 180 male members of the rural population was chosen
6.10 for interview. (There are no European planters in British
Honduras except for a group of Menninites not included in this
investigation.) It was found that nearly all respondents were
dissatisfied with their situation which is common to the rural
population. The dissatisfaction can be traced back to a school
education dominated by urban standards, to the spread of radio
and to the often proclaimed intention of the government to fight
poverty. A large percentage of this population is extremely
mobile, i.e., willing to use existing possibilities for improving
their situation; however, opportunities to change economic be-
havior are lacking. This is resented by the younger, more active
part of the population who are prepared to work in industry,
though the city as a place to live is not attractive to them.
Data gained from the interviews suggest that gradual industriali-
zation of the countryside would encounter popular response. The
development of a food-processing industry would provide badly
needed employment opportunities and eliminate some of the marginal
subsistence farms. A large-scale publicity campaign and extended
school education would help to win over the less mobile, conser-
vative part of the population.

Propositions

1.036 (1) The probability that individuals will be mobile is increased
if their outlook changes so as to weaken attachment to
5.10 traditional values. (Pp. 206-210.)
Evidence: Analysis of interviews with 180 male adults
5.123 from the rural population of British Honduras; data in
percentages.

1.036 (2) The probability of change will be increased if individuals
are dissatisfied with the present situation. (P. 210-212.)
5.123 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

1.036 (3) The probability that individuals will desire change will be increased by increased contact with the world outside their
5.123 immediate surroundings. Education is the primary agency for this increased contact. (Pp. 212-213.)
5.14 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

77F MacDonald, J.S., and L. MacDonald, "A Simple Framework for the Analysis of Agricultural Development Potential," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 12(4), 1964: 368-376.

Two types of Italian agricultural organization are analyzed in terms of four sets of variables, with particular emphasis on the institutionalization of decision-making leadership and saving for formation of capital. Agricultural organization in the Deep South impeded economic growth. Instability of ownership and operations and the fragmentation and dispersion of plots minimized economies of scale and paralyzed capitalization. Cultivators had no institutionalized channels for feeding in information about new methods and marketing. The more educated non-cultivators were alienated from agriculture. There was no consensus of co-ordination of decisions. Accumulation of savings was diminished by the atomization of enterprise units: accumulated savings were divorced from capitalization. By contrast, the agricultural organization of the Centre was stable. There was little fragmentation or dispersion of holdings or operations. Contracts were of long duration. Operating units were true farms and in many cases were integrated by an overall organization. The cultivators worked in a pyramidal hierarchy in consultation with owners and managers, which ensured the feeding-in of information about methods and marketing. The non-cultivators were not alienated from agriculture. There was flexible consensus and co-ordination in decision making. Savings were concentrated and reinvested in agriculture. Stability, consensus, co-ordination, and uniformity gave a sound basis for risk taking. The anthropologists' and rural sociologists' neglect of agricultural institutions for decision-making, leadership, savings formation, and capitalization appears to be due to the fact that many, if not most, agricultural systems lack special organization machinery performing these functions. This may be one of the main reasons for the stagnation of so many agricultural economies. It is suggested that the multi-dimensional analytic scheme introduced in this paper may help to provide anthropologists and rural sociologists with answers to some of the economists' and planners' most pressing questions.

Propositions

No propositions; largely descriptive.

77G Synder, J.H., "Problems and Possibilities in Planning for Agricultural Development," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 12(2), 1964: 123-138.

1.022 Planning for agricultural development must focus on agricultural
problems but it must also be contained within a broader
4.06 framework that reflects consideration of a nation's total economy.
Some of the factors that constitute barriers to planning for
4.181 accelerated economic growth in a developing country are specified
and exemplified from experience in West Pakistan. The five-year
4.182 plans present programmed steps in planned activities that serve
as guidelines. Failure to attain target increases in agricultural
production was a particularly disappointing feature of the first
five-year plan (1955-59). The major causes of shortfalls in implementation
are officially recognized, the prinicpal one being
a failure to observe the discipline of the plan. The goals of
the second five-year plan are now realistic. The types of problems
that restrict efficient technical performance include overcompartmentalization
and insufficient co-ordination of function,
inadequate levels of technical ability and services at the field
level and the relatively inferior status of workers in the general
fields of agriculture. Administrative problems include barriers
to planning for agricultural development resulting from organizational
or structural characteristics of government or industry,
while difficulty will be encountered in overcoming the countrywide
resistance to change and improvement until there is universal
education throughout the country.

Propositions

1.022 (1) The probability that individuals will be receptive to change is increased by increased education. (Pp. 134-135.)
5.123 Evidence: Unsubstantiated.

6.16

77H Adams, W.E., "The Pre-Revolutionary Decade of Land Reform in Iraq," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 11(3) April 1963: 267-288.

4.14 This article discusses Iraqui land reform in the context of:
(1) its history and (2) its problems and accomplishments. The
4.181 author concludes that the major problem was not peasant resistance
to change but inadequate government support. This experience
7.231 has demonstrated the importance of time; it is not possible to
hurry this type of project.

77I Franklin, S.H.,"The Limitations of Agrarian-Based Strategy: A Comment of Oshima's Development Scheme," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change 11(3), April 1963: 308-310.

1.02 Franklin criticizes Oshima's argument that industrialization
should be delayed until the agricultural sector can provide full
3.01 employment. He argues that it is difficult to achieve a satis-
factory pattern of investment by heavy investment in agriculture.

3.03 Oshima reiterates his argument that heavy investment in
agriculture is feasible. He says that peasants are less resis-
4.01 tant to change than is generally believed, and that it is impor-
tant that change be neither too fast nor too much.

4.03

77J Raup, Philip M., "The Contribution of Land Reforms to Agricultural Development: An Analytical Framework," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 12(1), 1963: 1-21.

4.03 The basic importance of agriculture to economic growth has
often been obscured. In most underdeveloped countries, agricul-
4.14 ture must continue for the foreseeable future to provide employ-
ment for a large percentage of the population. In some areas,
5.07 the presence of large numbers of urban unemployed increase the
need to expland employment opportunities in agriculture.

In the private sector, accretionary forms of agricultural capital formation (in the form of gradual improvements in land, buildings, livestock herds and techniques) are the important ones in early developmental phases. Agricultural policy for maximum growth in this phase calls for the creation of patterns of production, comsumption, and investment that maximize these accretionary processes. The land tenure system is a major force in attaining this end, by creating incentives for producers to invest surpluses above sustenance levels in the productive plant. Prospects of long and secure tenure create a condition in which maximum incentive is given for the investment of total available labor time in productive undertakings.

In the public sector, forms of public capital represented by systems of public health, education, local government, and community organizations are no less important than engineering projects. Land reform measures can broaden the incidence both of costs and benefits of capital formation of this type, making it more apparent to those required to pay that they will be the principal beneficiaries. This can promote stronger government, and increased interest in social capital formation, especially in education. If combined with tax reform, government revenue can be increased, and settlement and credit programs promoted through improved systems of land survey and title registry.

Where population pressure is high, the need is for output increasing rather than labor saving technologies. The land tenure reform which will best achieve this end is one that gives incentives for increasing output and improving production methods and product quality to the largest percentage of the agricultural labor force. The creation of small individual holdings rather than large collective units is more likely to develop quality in the human labor resource.

Thus land reform emphasis should shift from the negative goal of removing a barrier to the affirmative goal of creating a new climate of expectations and identifying efforts with rewards, obviating the need for coercive policies.

Propositions

4.09 (1) If a country is developing, then there is no reason to expect a reduction in the absolute numbers in the agricultural population within "the near future."
Evidence: Historical case examples.

5.10 (2) As medical and public health measures improve, the urban-rural inbalance swings more in favor of increased urbanization.
Evidence: Speculation.

3.19 (3) As foreign aid increases along with inadequate transport to the hinterlands, so too does the urban-rural imbalance swing
5.17 more in favor of increased urbanization.
Evidence: Speculation.
5.10

4.03 (4) Accretionary forms of agricultural capital are the important ones in early developmental phases, and in phases involving a shift from a cash-crop economy to a livestock-feed economy.
Evidence: Speculation.

4.14 (5) As the land tenure arrangements under which productive resources are held change, so too do the operator's time preference for money income.
Evidence: Speculation.

4.14 (6) As the land tenure arrangements under which productive resources are held change, so too do the expenditures between farm and household.
Evidence: Speculation.

4.14 (7) As the land tenure arrangements under which productive resources are held change, so too does the allocation of expenditures within the farm household as between goods and services for direct consumption and expenditures upon the family residence.
Evidence: Speculation.

4.14 (8) As the land tenure arrangements under which productive resources are held change, so too does the disposition of the
4.09 total available labor time of the farm family.
Evidence: Speculation.

4.05 (9) As the land tenure arrangements under which productive resources are held change, so too do attitudes toward and uses
4.14 made of credit.
Evidence: Speculation.

4.09 (10) If long and secure land tenure is possible, then maximum incentive is given for the investment of total available
4.14 labor in productive undertakings.
Evidence: Speculation.

4.03 (11) If long and secure tenure is possible, then maximum incentive is given for investment in slow maturing, maximum-return
4.14 enterprises.
Evidence: Speculation.

4.03 (12) If long and secure tenure is possible, then the cyclical leisure owing to the biological nature of crop growth may be
4.14 employed in productive enterprises of an investment nature
than consumptive nature.
Evidence: .Speculation.

4.03 (13) If tenure incentive motives are operating, then labor and capital inputs in agriculture will increase partially inde-
4.09 pendent of costs and prices.
Evidence: Speculation.
4.14

4.05 (14) If strong cultural tabus against debt exist, then agricul-
4.183 tural investment will be impeded.
Evidence: Speculation.

3.19 (15) If the identification between taxpayer and beneficiary is
relaxed, then the prospects for long-term investment (e.g.,
4.03 education) are improved.
Evidence: Speculation.
4.183

77K Schwartzberg, J.E., "Agricultural Labor in India; A Regional Analysis with Particular Reference to Population Growth," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 11(4), July 1963: 337-352.

1.021 The author considers regional variations in proportions of
agricultural workers. Two sources of data are analyzed: the 1951
4.09 decennial census and the Agricultural Labor Enquiry(1951). Reasons
why the census and the ALE differ are suggested as are reasons for
regional variations in percentages of agricultural laborers.
Finally, the author traces probable trends since 1951.

77L Berreman, Gerald D., "Caste and Economy in the Himalayas," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 10(4), July 1962: 386-394.

1.021 The characteristic caste structure and economic organization
of a Hindu village in the lower Himalayas of North India are
3.08 described, with special emphasis on the traditional system of
exchange of agricultural goods for the services of occupational
4.07 specialists. This is often referred to as the jajmani system.
Four types of exchange are described: (1) the Brahmin priest's
5.062 ritual services to his clients, (2) the low caste artisan's
services to his agricultural clients, (3) the exchange of services
5.16 among artisan castes, and (4) services performed on a piece-work
or daily wage basis. These types of exchange are analyzed from
the point of view of the potential for exploitation inherent in
them. It is found that only the second is frequently exploitative.
Conditions making for exploitability are specified under the three
general categories: (a) disparity in economic power between client and worker, (b) disparity in political power, (c) disparity
in ritual status. Since there are at least three kinds of exchange
involved in the jajmani system, and since economic, political, and
ritual variables are operative, to characterize the system as
exploitative is too sweeping. In the village studied, conditions
conspired to make the artisan easily subject to exploitation by
his agricultural clients. Under other conditions which are specified, nonexploitative jajmani relationships may become prominent.
Such specification of variables is necessary if comparative work
on village economic organization in India is to progress.

Propositions

1.021 (1) If there is an "important disparity" between the economic power of client and worker, especially when and to the degree
5.062 that the latter is directly dependent upon the former for his livelihood, then the potentiality for exploitation increases.
Evidence: Case study.

3.08 (2) If there is a lack of essential services that the worker can offer to his client, then the potentiality for exploitation
5.06 increases.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

3.08 (3) If there is a lack of occupational monopoly by the worker, then the potentiality for exploitation increases.
5.06 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

3.08 (4) If there is a lack of assured clientele by the worker, then the potentiality for exploitation increases.
5.06 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

3.08 (5) If there is a lack of independent or alternative sources of income by the worker, then the potentiality for exploitation
5.06 increases.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

3.08 (6) If there is a lack of occupational or residential mobility which would make alternative sources of livelihood or escape
5.062 from exploitative clients possible, then the potentiality for exploitation increases.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

3.08 (7) If there is a lack of organization with fellows into a cohesive group that can withhold services as a means of obtaining
5.062 its goals, then the potentiality for exploitation increases.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

3.08 (8) If there is "an important disparity" between the political power of the client and the worker--especially when and to
5.062 the degree that the latter is dependent upon the former for his safety, peace of mind, etc.--, then the potentiality for exploitation increases.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

3.08 (9) If there is "an important disparity" in ritually prescribed status, i.e., status polarization, then the potentiality for exploitation increases.
5.062 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

3.08 (10) If clients are relatively well organized (as in a caste system), then the potentiality for exploitation increases.
5.062 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

77M Deutsch, Karl W., Chester I. Bliss, and Alexander Eckstein, "Population, Sovereignty, and the Share of Foreign Trade," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change., 10(4), July 1962: 353-367.

3.16 This is a cross-section study of data from 73 countries for 1955, with reference to the ratio of foreign commodity trade to
5.07 the country's GNP. Data were collected from official sources and related quantitatively to the following national characteristics: 1956 population, 1955 GNP, and 1954 sovereignty status. An analysis of the data showed that population and sovereignty were correlated with the level of the foreign trade, but variations in national policy or ideology among non-Communist countries was without apparent effect. As the population increases from 1 million to 10 million people, the ratio of foreign trade drops on the mean, from 50% to 35%. This decline accelerates at population sizes above 10 million. If the population reaches 150 million, it is expected that the foreign trade ratio might drop to 10%. At the 500 million mark, the foreign trade ratio might equal 5%. The economic incentives to political integration seem to be self-limiting. For a colonial country of 10 million people with a per capita income below $225, the foreign trade ratio is about 52% while for a similar sovereign state, the foreign trade ratio is 37%. This projected decline in the foreign trade ratio might have serious effects on normal trade channels between the former colony and metropolitan country. Further, as the per capita income of a sovereign country of 10 million people reaches $225 to $600, the expected foreign trade ratio drops to 30%. However, if the per capita income should reach over $600, the expected foreign trade ratio rises to over 42%, the highest level for the three groups of sovereign states classified by income. A program of international economic cooperation may not restore the high foreign trade ratio of the 1913 world, since it was based on the colonial status of the under-developed countries.

Propositions

3.16 (1) As the population increases from 1 million to 10 million, the
foreign trade ratio tends to decline only moderately. (A
5.07 population is considered to be increasing either by population
growth or political mergers or economic unions between
several small countries.)
Evidence: Cross-national comparison; UN data; US Dept.
of State data; multiple regression analysis.

3.16 (2) As the population increases to sizes above 10 million, the
decline in the foreign trade ratio is accelerated.
5.07 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

3.16 (3) As population increases, the economic incentives to political
integration are self-limiting, as the relative weight (foreign
5.07 trade ratio) of these incentives declines rapidly.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.
7.11

3.16 (4) If a country has colonial status, then it is associated with
a strikingly high foreign trade ratio (about 52%), independently of size and income level.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

3.16 (5) If a country is sovereign, then it is associated with a
foreign trade ratio of about 37%, independently of size and
income level.

3.16 (6) If the national income increases, then that increase tends to
promote industrialization mainly through the substitution of
5.07 domestic production for imports.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

3.16 (7) If a country has a population of at least 10 million and per
capita income above $600, then the foreign trade ratio rises
5.07 to over 42%.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

3.16 (8) As national policy or ideology varies among non-Communist
countries, the level of foreign trade ratios remains
7.16 unaffected.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.
7.23

77N Elder, J.W., "Land Consolidation in an Indian Village: A Case Study of the Consolidation of Holdings Act in Uttar Pradesh," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change 11(1), October 1962: 16-40.

1.021 4.14 This article focuses upon land reform in an Indian village. The initial resistance of the villagersis noted and is verified by reference to temporary reductions in agricultural production. Furthermore, consolidation has confronted the villagers with activities of the ostensibly democratic state and national government.

77O Fitchett, D.A., "Land Taxation and Land Reform in Underdeveloped Countries: A Comment," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 10(2), Pt. 1, January 1962: 210-213.

4.05 4.14 The author criticizes an earlier article by Richard Lindholm. He objects to Lindholm's "narrow" view of land reform. The following allegations are disputed: (1) that Japan and the United States had similar tax systems during their periods of rapid growth; (2) that land reform necessarily results in inflation; and (3) that land confiscation necessarily reduces "citizen faith in government protection of contractual rights." Lindholm offers a rejoinder.

77P Levy, Marion J., Jr., "Some Aspects of 'Individualism' and the Problem of Modernization in China and Japan," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change., 10(3), April 1962: 225-240.

1.025 1.230 3.03 3.14 5.01 Two types of individualism are considered: (1) individualism by ideal, i.e., more or less institutionalized as part of the social structure; and (b) individualism by default, i.e., socially expected or institutionalized criteria or judgments are either unavailable or non-existent for a person in a social situation. In China, the family was the focus of orientation, and merchant pursuits were held in low esteem. Thus, he could practice individualism by default. Though the Communists have practically eradicated the influence of the family, thus freeing the individual in his pursuits, over-centralization does not permit aggressive individualism. In Japan, too, the merchant was held in low esteem, but, unlike China, he could not escape his class. Also, he had to deal with officials who had wide power over him. However, he was given room within his class to function—individualism by ideal—and was supported by the imperial government as a bulwark against the power of daimyo. They were also useful to the samurai and thus received support from them. Witbout land as an avenue of investment, other spheres were necessary. Thus their capital was available to the government when industrialization was necessary. The merchants brought not only their capital, but their traditional exercise of individualism necessary for modern commercialization.

Propositions

1.025 (1) If a society has made individualism an ideal on a very wide
social scale and has retained some sort of overall stability,
1.030 then it is a society which has made social change a central
virtue within a framework of overall stability.
5.01 Evidence: Speculation.
5.112

(2) If a high and generally positive evaluation of individualism
5.112 is made in a society, then radical change is likely to take
place over time.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

5.06 (3) If a nation is developing, then its social structure will
change radically, even if modernization is not markedly
successful--that is, independently of the success of
modernization. (The author does not indicate whether change
is independent of modernization or not, but he implies that
it is not.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

3.03 (4) If a nation is developing, then the problem of effective
capital formation is certain to be great in scale and in
absolute amounts.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

5.111 (5) If a nation is developing, then the problem of general control
of individuals is almost certain to be posed in a radical
form.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

5.112 (6) If the process of modernization opens new areas of activity
which have not previously existed, and if the general social
structure is likely to change radically, then individualism
by default is made more likely.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

77Q Neurath, Paul M., "Radio Farm Forum as a Tool of Change in Indian Villages," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change., 10(3), April 1962: 275-283.

1.021 5.15 6.10 A study to determine whether a Radio Farm Forum could be used as a tool for community development in newly developing countries. The experiment was conducted in 150 villages in the state of Maharashtra, India. The evaluation survey comprising 20 of the 150 Farm Forums indicated that: (1) there was a marked increase in knowledge of organized group listening and discussion; (2) the forums functioned very well and attendance was excellent; (3) many agricultural and village improvement programs were followed, and the forums developed into a village parliament, taking up any number of village problems.

Propositions

1.021 6.10 (1) The probability that individuals will increase their knowledge of some topic relevant to development increases far more, if they are organized into groups to listen to broadcasts and discuss the topic than if unorganized for such purposes. Evidence: Experiment--matched pair case study.

77R Schmitt, Hans O., "Foreign Capital and Social Conflict in Indonesia,"1950-1958," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 10(3), April 1962: 284-293.

4.03 5.13 7.02 It is hypothesized that in countries where the control of the capital stock and the direction of public affairs are held in a single elite group, development is stimulated by the fact that the political elite idenfities its interests with the expansion of capital. In countries where the expansion of capital will in the first instance strengthen foreign managerial groups, the indigenous political elite--despite protestations to the contrary on grounds of general welfare--will, on balance, be opposed to it. The destabilizing effect of foreign capital in Indonesia is analyzed by tracing the determinants and consequences of inflation from 1950 to 1958. Financial ease was necessary to subsidize entry by new Indonesian firms into markets controlled by foreign capital. Thus, a conflict between those who favored and those who opposed financial retrenchment in the Indonesian leadership in fact divided those who preferred foreign dominance to monetary chaos from those who were willing to jeopardize financial stability to rid the economy of foreign control. As inflation benefitted some indigenous population groups and hurt others, the conflict within the elite threatened to split the entire society. To counteract the tendency toward social disintegration, the inflationary parties appealed more and more recklessly to nationalistic sentiment, at last touching off a forcible expulsion of Dutch business interests from the country. A similar rift between those who are willing to live with foreign economic dominance, and those who insist on its early destruction may characterize all post-colonial elites. Political instability may then cause more population groups to lose faith in its leadership. In the end, the elite will be faced, as in Indonesia, with two alternatives: (1) either to make common cause with foreign interests to maintain itself against the indigenous population, or (2) to divert the blame for economic and political deterioration to foreign interests in an effort to lead a movement of popular revolution against them. Neither alternative holds much future for the West. A way must be found to yield positions of economic deminance while leaving the principle of private property intact.

Propositions

4.03 (1) If power and prestige are based on land holdings, ambition
expresses itself chiefly in additions to real estate rather
4.181 than capital, with capital expansion often being opposed as
a threat to the vested interests of the landowners.
Evidence: Single case study.

4.03 (2) If a population or subgroup is propertyless, then it is likely
to express its interests in maximum consumption.
4.181 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

3.03 (3) If indigenous capital is restricted--by market forces or by
government policy--from reaching proportions competitive
7.231 with foreign enterprise, then opportunism, if not fatalism
and resignation, in economic activity are the natural consequences in any society in any part of the world.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

3.03 (4) If control of the capital stock and the direction of public
affairs are held by a single elite group, then economic
7.02 development will be stimulated--by the fact that the political
elite identifies its interests with the expansion of capital.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

7.02 (5) If economic development is opposed by the indigenous elite,
then a high degree of political instability is likely.
7.12 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

7.02 7.12 (6) If members of the political elite are barred from economic careers, find no stable channels for the consolidation and extension of such power as they may individually aspire to, and are restricted to intranecine strife in their ambitions for advancement, then strife will tend to crystallize unpredictably around personalities rather than broad social issues.

Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

7.02 7.11 (7) As the political elite becomes increasingly divided within itself, so too does the likelihood that it will have either to make common cause with foreign interests to maintain itself against the indigenous population or it will attempt to divert blame for economic deterioration exclusively to foreign interests, ascribing its own internal conflicts to often fictitious foreign subversion, and attempting to lead a movement of popular revolution against foreign control of the economy.

Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

3.03 4.03 (8) If conditions congenial to foreign investment are created to increase domestic savings, and if capital is applied first to agriculture because marginal product is maximized in labor-intensive industries, then an agrarian social structure hostile to progressive capital accumulation and abandoning the development of modern industry to foreign interests will be strengthened.

Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

77S Smith, Robert S., "Population and Economic Growth in Central America," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 10(2), Pt. 1, January 1962: 134-139.

1.04 3.02 3.18 5.07 Central America is in the process of perfecting a common market. Regional free trade, a common external tariff, and industrialization are expected to promote growth and raise per capita incomes. A major obstacle to the region's accelerated economic development is high fertility. While environmental sanitation, the eradication of epidemics, improved public health facilities, and better medical education have contributed to the sharp reduction in mortality, the birth rate remains at its traditionally high level of 40-45 per thousand. Consequently, population is increasing at a rate exceeding 3% annually. Given the backwardness of agriculture and the shortage of skills and resources for industrial development, it is unreasonable to suppose that the GNP in real terms can grow faster than the rate of population growth. The Common Market is not a substitute for measures which might serve to bring fertility under control.

Propositions

3.02 (1) If fertility is not brought under control, then the rate of
economic growth cannot realistically be expected to be
5.07 sufficient to insure continued economic development.
Evidence: Cross-sectional comparison of birth rates and economic growth rate.

77T Clayton, E.S., "Small-Scale Cash Crop Production in a Developing Economy," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 9(4), 1961: 614-624.

1.016 Agrarian developments are taking place in Kenya which are
effectively increasing the income and living standards of the
4/11 African cultivator, mainly by small-scale production of cash
crops (coffee, tea, sisal, pineapples, sugar-cane, pyrethrum, and
4.13 cotton). This article is concerned with the nature of costs in
peasant cash crop production and with those factors which affect the competitive position of the peasant producer in Kenya. The peasant cultivator can be a low-cost producer if the following three conditions are complied with: (1) production alternatives include food crops and only one cash crop; (2) little or no hired labor is used and (3) production and processing of the cash crops are carried out on a small scale. The repercussions of this development as to landed property are discussed, and in this connection the events leading up to Kenya's land reforms are reviewed.

Propositions

No propositions.

77U Cole, Arthur H., "The Relations of Missionary Activity to Economic Development," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 9(2), January 1961: 120-127.

3.09 Central offices of missionary activities interpreted their
commission as merely one of spiritual salvation. Until recent
3.12 years there was no encoding of an economic message, but there were
economic consequences. Some missionaries were encouraged to enter
3.145 trade; others were followed by friends or relatives with those
inclinations. The missionaries helped to improve local methods

4.09 of cultivation and encouraged exploitation of natural resources. Since financial support from home was meager, missionaries added
4.10 to local resources by establishing small enterprises and the use of cheap labor. In general, the missionaries limited themselves
5.073 to instruction in handicraft skills. They set examples of industry and zeal and inculcated attitudes of hard work and thrift;
5.15 this became part of the unintended training in the habits and attitudes of business civilization. Missionaries can still be
5.16 awarded the distinction of giving great stimulus in the period 1700-1960, toward economic development over a larger portion of the earth's surface than any other aggregate; and they accomplished this with a communications system ill adapted to that purpose.

77V Cortes, Juan B., "The Achievement Motive in the Spanish Economy Between the 13th and 18th Centuries," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 9(2), January 1961: 144-163.

1.06 On the basis of empirical findings on the achievement motive (as reported by D.C. McClelland, et al.), it was predicted that
3.12 a rise in the level of achievement motivation in Spain would directly precede a rise in the rate of Spanish economic growth.
5.123 After careful research on Spanish economic history, and after consulting over 20 experts in the field from various countries, it was concluded that the following periods can be determined in the Spanish economy: economic growth, 1200 to 1492; economic prosperity, 1492 to 1610; economic decline, 1610 to 1730. A study of the achievement motive in the writings of 168 representative authors of those periods, totaling around 300,000 words, gave 1,074 instances of achievement imagery in the period of economic growth, 607 instances in the period of economic prosperity, and 276 instances in the period of economic decline. An analysis of variance of the results, by economic periods and by type of literature (fiction, verse, history, and stories), shows that in all types of literature the achievement imagery scores are significantly higher for the period of economic growth. The study, therefore, confirms the hypothesis to be tested. A brief discussion of the relevance of these results and of the importance of this type of motivation for the future economic growth of societies is included.

77W Demeny, Paul, "The Economics of Government Payments to Limit Population: A Comment," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 9(4), July 1961: 641-644.

An earlier article by S. Enke is critically evaluated by means of a detailed economic analysis. Enke estimated that the

1.021 value of permanently preventing a birth in India is $100, and
that it would be far more advantageous to invest in birth preven-
3.01 tion bonuses than in traditional developmental projects. The
author agrees with Enke's $100 estimate for the value of a pre-
3.02 vented birth, but feels that the effectiveness of vasectomy bonus
payments in raising per capita income is grossly exaggerated in
5.07 view of "the gain foregone when abstaining from alternative in-
vestment projects." It is concluded that Enke's case is very
strong but not as strong as he originally claimed.

77X Goldsmith, Raymond W., "The Economic Growth of Tsarist Russia 1860-1913," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 9(3), April 1961: 441-475.

1.06 This article discusses the growth in agricultural and indus-
trial production on the basis of newly calculated annual indices.
3.02 The rate of increase in total agricultural output from 1860 to
1913 is estimated at not more than 2% a year. The increase was
4.11 more rapid in crop production, especially of cereals, than in
livestock products. Output in manufacturing and mining, starting
from a very low level in 1860, expanded rapidly and grew at the
rate of approximately 5% a year, if both factory industry and
handicrafts are included. The rate of growth was considerably
higher from the middle 1880's to World War I than during the pre-
ceding 20 years. The total volume of output is estimated to have
increased at an annual rate of 2.5%. Output per head increased
by about 1% during the first half of the period, but by more than
1.25% during the second half. All the figures should be regarded
as mid-points of a range of 0.5% width.

77Y Kunkel, J.H., "Economic Autonomy and Social Change in Mexican Villages," Econ. Devel. andt. Change, 10(1), October 1961: 51-63.

1.043 By analyzing data presented in fifteen studies of Mexican
communities, the author supports the hypothesis that economic
5.063 interaction results is social change. He argues that villages
involved in the national economy assume a form of social organi-
zation which conforms to the national model.

Propositions

(1) The probability that an individual or group will adapt to the social organization of another individual or group will be increased as economic ties with the second individual or group increase. (P. 55.)

Evidence: By an analysis of the quantitative data from

15 community studies, the author constructs an index indicating that economic interaction results in the adoption of social values. Although it would appear very feasible, no rank-order correlation of variables was computed. (Pp. 58-59.)

77Z Kuznets, Simon, "Quantitative Aspects of the Economic Growth of Nations: Long-Trends in Capital Formation Proportions," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 9(4), July 1961: 3-124.

3.02 This article is a study of the long-term trends in capital formations proportion in 12 nations: Britain; Germany; Italy, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, United States, Canada, Australia, Japan, Argentina, and South Africa. Evidence is presented under the following heads: (1) level and range of capital formation proportions; (2) composition of capital formation by type of goods and industry of use; (3) ratios of capital formation proportions to rates of growth in national product (incremental capital-output ratios); (4) distribution of capital formation by type of purchaser and source of financing. Findings were derived from data extending back to the third quarter of the 19th century. Some findings were: (a) in most countries gross and net, and domestic and national capital formation proportions rose over the long run; (b) the secular rise in the national capital formation proportion was more marked for most countries than the domestic capital formation proportion; (c) the adjustment for the greater rise of prices of capital goods than that of prices of all goods in country-wide product, reduced the rise in capital formation proportions; (d) incremental capital-output ratios differed widely among countries; (e) shares of additions to stocks and of construction in domestic gross capital formation tended to decline over time and the share of producers' equipment rose correspondingly; and (f) government purchases accounted for 15-40% of gross fixed capital formation. The findings suggest that "the savings-income-capital-growth relations have been far too variable--because of the wide range of technological and social conditions over time and space--to retain much usefulness as guides either in analysis or policy."

77AA Marczewski, Jan, "Some Aspects of the Economic Growth of France, 1660-1958," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 9(3), April 1961: 369-386.

3.02 The series cover the whole of agricultural production and
over 70% of total industrial value added. The quantities obtained
3.09 in current prices give the gross physical product of agriculture

and industry, which is then checked with the data on foreign trade and current government expenditure, taken from independent sources. A synthetic volume index of physical product is then constructed. The rates obtained reflect the growth as it would have appeared to the observers living in each of the particular periods and thinking in terms of contemporary scales of values. The comparison of these rates with the rates obtained by using a fixed system of price weights gives a measure of the effect of changes in relative prices, which is important for the relation between agriculture and industry. Inside industry, the role of particular branches is expressed by their relative rates of growth and their percentage shares in total value added. Each decennial period can thus be characterized through industries which grow much faster than the average rate of growth. Since the beginning of the 18th century, the economic growth of France has followed a continuously rising movement with some alternating periods of acceleration and deceleration. The average rate of growth of physical product rose from 1.2% in the 18th century to abuut 1.6% in the 19th century, to 2.2% at the beginning of the 20th century and more than 6% after World War II. This acceleration is due to the increasing weight of industry and to the increasingly rapid renovation of industrial structures under the pressure of technical progress. An absolute decline of physical product has been observed only during the years 1750-1785, the first 10 years of the July Monarchy and of the Second Empire, the "Belle Epoque" of the 1900's, the years 1924-1929, and the record years of 1954-1957.

77BB Panikar, P.G.K., "Rural Saving in India," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 10(1), October 1961: 64-85.

1.021 The author states that it is commonly believed that savings in rural families in underdeveloped countries are low, but that
4.03 an analysis of the regional family budget studies suggests that the contrary might be the case. He comes to the conclusion: that neither agriculture nor the rural sector in India is a deficit sector, and that the level of savings in 1950-51--a none too prosperous period--was significantly higher than usually assumed.

Propositions

No propositions; the author is concerned only with computing the level of savings; he does not discuss factors related to the extent of savings.

77CC Parker, William N., "Economic Development in Historical Perspective," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 10(1), October 1961: 1-7.

1.06 3.11 5.15 This article is divided into three parts. In part I, changes in techniques of communication are examined for their effects on the rate of diffusion of modern industry from Europe over the past two centuries. In part II, changes in production and transport techniques are examined for their effects on the shifting geographical distribution of opportunities for economic development within the zone of diffusion of those techniques. In part III, some of the reasons for the historical sequence of techniques are considered. The core of the argument is that: (1) the sequence of technological change over the past two centuries has controlled both the rate of diffusion of modern industrial culture and the shifting production opportunities at specific locations within the zone of diffusion; and (2) sequence has been governed by human capabilities in examining external nature. Together, these propositions pose a technological determinism, operating at a level of human nature beneath and beyond the influences of preexisting social environment. To the extent that this thesis is valid, the national society and the national economy lose a portion of the importance with which they are invested by much current work of historians and economists in the study of economic development.

Propositions

3.11 (1) If technological techniques are successfully to be transmitted cross-culturally, then they must be preceded by a transmission of social traits, or underlying modern attitudes toward nature and human value, to raise the level of receptivity to the new technology.
Evidence: Speculation.

3.11 (2) If benefits result from primary (temporally) technological innovations, then opportunities for further technological change are improved.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

77DD Pesek, Boris P., "Economic Growth and Its Measurement," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 9(3), April 1961: 295-315.

3.01 3.02 This article is a discussion of five currently used methods of calculating the rates of growth of the variable which a researcher might want to study (e.g., the rate of economic growth): (1) method based on the geomatric means of the ratios of the differentiation (small-scale establishments advantageously employ a capital-saving technology in combination with cheap labor); (3) the profit rate of small-scale enterprise is usually lower.

77FF Sutton, F.X., "Planning and Rationality in the Newly Independent States in Africa," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 10(1), October 1961: 42-50.

1.01
7.02
7.11
7.14

This is a discussion of the "development ideology" of the African leaders and its historical background. The ideology of development prevalent in the newly, independent African states is distinguished by its faith in government leadership and planning and in the competence and prospective helpfulness of the developed countries. With reference to goals and methods, it is a vision of rationalization, a consciously directed process based on comprehensive scientific analysis. The African movement toward independence can be viewed as a phase in the sequence of reactions to European colonial influence: there has been a dependency on European example and initiative. European tutelage was designed to acculturate the Africans according to the model of modern society, but the African states are reaching independence prematurely. The introduction of a reward and status system, based on universalism and achievement, has overburdened the ascriptive character of race. The new African political elite has channeled African reactions away from religious and traditional competitors into national movements. Europeans have ceased to be the African political elite but are still relied upon for guidance in technology planning. Problems of political order and stability are beginning to appear, and African states face the problems of obstacles to scientific guidance and training by outsiders and the question of the capacity of the developed nations' resources to meet the African nations' needs.

Propositions

(1) If the bulk of useful knowledge is tied to concrete conditions, then cross-cultural technological transfer is less readily achieved.

Argument:

(a) Useful information about technological innovation is determined by the situation--that is, it is situation-specific.

(b) If it is situation-specific, then attempts to transfer those innovations cross-culturally will be impeded.

Evidence: Speculation.

3.07 (2) If the "amount" of rational policies far exceeds the administrative bureaucracy's capacity to operationalize or implement them, then the bureaucracy will be overburdened and
7.03 economic development will be impeded.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

77GG Barber, William J., "Economic Rationality and Behavior Patterns in an Underdeveloped Area: A Case study of African Economic Behavior in the Rhodesias," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 8(3), April 1960: 237-251.

1.125 A study of the African populations of Southern and Northern
Rhodesia, utilizing the government's statistical findings to
4.07 "analyze the response of an indigenous people to fresh opportunities for economic advance; and secondly, to consider the extent
4.08 to which the observed patterns of behavior can be explained by
the usual assumptions of economic retionality." Findings disclose
4.11 that where there is access to markets for sale of agricultural
surpluses, the African has intensified his efforts as a farmer; he produced more and sold his surplus for cash. In these areas a lower proportion of males have sought wage employment as compared to provinces where sale of agricultural surplus is less feasible. Their economic rational behavior is understood only within the context of the dualistic economic structure. If the African is a wage earner he moves between the money and the indigenous economy. This situation of not daring to risk a sacrifice in the output of the subsistence agricultural community which would follow from his continouus absence, recommends perpetuation of the migratory system. It is felt that "if an African labor force is to be stabilized in wage employment and its productivity there increased,....the price which the employer must expect to pay for a stable labor force is a real wage sufficient to support an entire indigenous family at a standard which would make it attractive to grow roots in the money economy."

Propositions

1.025 (1) If access to markets permits the sale of agricultural surpluses, then a native will intensify his efforts as a farmer,
4.07 produce more, and sell the surplus for cash.
Evidence: Cross-national case studies.
4.09

1.025 (2) If the acquisition of cash from agricultural sales is less feasible, then a larger proportion of the adult males are
4.07 likely to be offered for wage employment.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.
4.09

77HH Felix, David, "Structural Imbalances, Social Conflict, and Inflation: An Appraisal of Chile's Recent Anti-Inflationary Report," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 8(2), January 1960: 113-147.

1.035 The Klein-Saks Mission to Chile was unable to reconcile the inconsistencies of a mercantilist effort to promote economic

3.07 development in Chile (1955) through industrialization, with a background of a stagnant agriculture, "an aggressive white-collar professional class with welfare state aspirations, and an increasingly militant non-agricultural working class." The continuation of a mercantilist development demanded an increase in an already high property share of national income to meet consumption extracted from the social product by the propertied classes and to overcome industrial inefficiencies and cost pressures. Welfare state operations have blocked this, and there has been distortion by the inadequate growth of private employment for the white collar and professional class. "The additional margin of resources provided by postwar improvements in the terms of trade was inadequate to reconcile the incongruities, and accelerating inflation was the particular Chilean method for trying to live with these incongruities." The Klein-Saks Mission tried to deal with the inflation by taking a middle road, i.e., trying to persuade the power groups to move from their entrenchment; but it was never able to get strong support and only the Right supported it, yet chose to disregard the progressive tax proposals on which the success of the entire program rested. "The Mission succeeded in reducing inflation to a low of about 20 per cent in 1957... But growing unemployment and other depressive symptoms indicate that a substantial reduction of the structural imbalances impeding Chilean growth was not among the Mission's accomplishments."

Propositions

No propositions; largely a descriptive analysis of the Klein-Saks Mission.

77II Frank, Andrew G., "Human Capital and Economic Growth," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 8, January 1960: 170-173.

3.19 Traditional economic thinking has usually emphasized the three inputs of land, labor, and capital. The author disagrees

6.16 and cites the human factor as playing a major role in the relationship between input and output. He points out several cases where output could not be explained by increases in labor and capital while land was constant. The difference is attributed in part to human factors.

Propositions

(1) "Investment in the human factor may well have a higher pay-off in terms of increased output than does any other input." (Rapid growth in Chile, Argentina, etc. is attributed to the fact that much of the population is of European stock and relatively well educated.) (Pp. 170-172.)

77JJ Hendry, J.B., "Land Tenure in South Viet Nam," Econ. Devel Cult. Change, 9(1), Pt. 1, October 1960: 27-44.

1.231 The author discusses (as a case study) the pattern of land-
holdings in one South Vietnamese village. Particular attention
4.14 is given to the ownership of holdings and to the administration
of the government's land reform program.

4.16

Propositions

5.123 (1) If the population desires a change, then it is difficult for
the government to resist implementation of the change.
7.11 (P. 41.)

Evidence: The people came to anticipate a land reform because of the promises of the Viet Minh; it then became necessary for the government to initiate a land reform program.

77KK Jaffe, A.J., and K. Azumi, "The Birth Rate and Cottage Industries in Underdeveloped Countries," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 9(1), Pt. 1, October 1960: 52-63.

1.025 The article discusses the relationship between the existence
of cottage industries and fertility. Using Puerto Rican and
1.044 Japanese data, the authors show that the fertility rate among
women engaged in cottage industries is higher than that of women
5.07 engaged in occupations which remove them from the home.

Propositions

5.111 (1) The probability of change is decreased if modern economic
institutions are integrated into a system enabling the con-
5.113 tinuation of traditional values. (P. 62.)

Evidence: Example of Puerto Rican and Japanese experience.

77LL Van Velsen, J., "Labor Migration as a Positive Factor in the Continuity of Tonga Tribal Society," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 8(3), April 1960: 265-278.

1.124 This is a study of the problems of labor migration and urbanization with specific reference to the Tonga people of
5.09 Nyasaland. At any particular time, some 70% of the adult male Tonga are absent, working in distant industrial centers. While
5.10 there, they adapt themselves to the new, urban, industrial way of life. However, they are not "urbanized" in the sense that they have settled permanently in an urban community. The level of social and economic security of African employees is so low that they want to maintain a line of retreat to their rural homes. Thus, the Tonga, as well as most other Africans, rely on their kinsmen in the village to preserve a niche for them(including rights to land as the source of subsistence) in their rural society, as an insurance against a period of unemployment, disablement, old age, etc. The labor migrants in turn contribute to the economy of their rural community through the transmittance of cash and certain trade goods. The ultimate aim of the labor migrant's wish to retire in his tribal home can be explained in terms of social and economic factors which drive him out of the centers of industrial employment, back to the tribal subsistence economy. Thus, most "urbanized" Tonga have an active economic interest in the continuance,of tribal cohesion; the "breakdown of tribal society" generally supposed to result from labor migration is in this case merely an assumption unsupported by facts. An analytical explanation along these lines clarifies the problem of labor migration more satisfactorily than an analysis which assumes a mystical pull of the land, or innate tribal conservatism and inadequate adaptation to modern economic conditions.

Propositions

1.124 (1) If a tribesman does not perceive that certain social and economic security awaits him in his labor migration to an
5.10 urban area, then he will maintain social and economic ties to his village, and, in that sense, will not become "urbanized" or"detribalized."

Evidence: Case study.

77MM Young, F.W., and R.C. Young, "Social Integration and Change in Twenty-Four Mexican Villages," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 8(4), Pt. 1, July 1960: 366-377.

1.043 A preliminary investigation by the authors suggested that, contrary to the assumption of literature on social change, contact
5.01 with modern economic institutions did not inevitably result in

5.02 change. Therefore, the authors conducted a study to determine what factors do result in change; this was done by analyzing
5.121 absolute and relative change in terms of four variables: institutionalization, folk-urban, interaction of cohesion, and lack
5.122 of social pathology.

Propositions

No propositions; this article emphasizes a theoretical conceptualization of change rather than how change occurs.

77NN Young, F.W., and R.C. Young, "Two Determinants of Community Reaction to Industrialization ifn Rural Mexico," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 8(3), April 1960: 257-264.

1.043 A key-informant structured survey of the 24 villages surrounding a five-year old industrial center in the Mexican central
3.08 plateau indicates that two factors, population size (over 1,000) and distance from the factory center (less than five miles),
5.07 determine most of the variance of a 7-item Guttman scale of economic contact. Low economic contact is confined to individual worker relations; high contact includes selling in the marketplace of the factory center and the gains (new roads, etc.) made by the village as a whole. Further analysis shows that population size correlates highly with institutional level, as measured by a 14-item Guttman scale, the crucial cutting point of which occurs between the items reflecting traditional contact (railroad, school) and those indexing modern contact with the rational system (a doctor, telephones, radios, and a secondary school). Similarly, distance has a sociological substratum. Absolute distance does not correlate. Only when units are converted to functional miles based on the condition of the roads, and thus relating to the actual opportunity for contact, is there a relation. Institutional level operates to put villages as a whole into contact with the industrial center, but if they are close enough, individuals can make contact of their own.

7700 Kapp, K. William, "River Valley Projects in India: Their Direct Effects," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 8(1), October 1959: 24-47.

1.021 The effects of irrigation on the structure of agriculture as examined in India is applied to underdeveloped countries as a
4.11 whole by adapting G. Myrdal's principle of circular or cumulative causation. The development process is appraised using productivity
4.17 data (these data are a barometer of economic and social changes).

Discussion of the gradual transition from subsistence farming to cash crop farming as affected by water supply includes: (1) structural changes in agricultural production, (2) "monetization of exchanges and a commercialization of agriculture," (3) stabilization of farm output, (4) "intensification of farm production," (5) productivity increases, and (6) number and size of farm units.

Propositions

No propositions.

77PP Morgan, Theodore, "The Long-Run Terms of Trade Between Agriculture and Manufacturing," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 8(1), October 1959: 1-23.

3.07
4.08
The practice of generalizing from British data on price trends of agriculture and manufacturing results in inaccurate findings and predictions. By using data from six other countries (United States, India, Japan, New Zealand, Brazil, and South Africa) and extending the time period, it is shown that British data do not represent the factors of quality improvements in manufacturing and falling transportation costs. The price position of agricultural producers is not worsening as many theories purport; rather, it appears that agricultural prices are falling due to decreased demand. The implications for policy in underdeveloped countries are: (1) the concepts of single factor terms of trade and income terms of trade are likely to be more significant; and (2) barter terms of trade data should not be used; (a) a country should use its own price changes data, (b) each import and export commodity sbould be examined separately, and (c) concentration should be on economic flexibility and adaptability.

Propositions

No Propositions.

77QQ Trager, Frank N., "A Selected and Annotated Bibliography on Economic Development, 1953-1957," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 6, July 1958: 257-329.

3.01 This bibliography is confined to English writings and contains only the literature which "displays professional competence." Entries are classified according to topic and includes all United Nations and United States Government documents.

77RR Wharton, Clifton, R., Jr., "The Nature of Technical Assistance for Economic Development," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 6, 1958: 109-128.

3.173 "The purpose of this paper is to describe the conceptual character of technical assistance, to delineate its scope as representatively found on the Latin American scene, and to analyze its attributes," The following attributes of technical assistance are discussed: a cooperative venture, a flexible tool, a satisfier of un-met needs, an inexpensive seeding operation, and a new international institution.

77SS Eisenstadt, S.N., "Sociological Aspects of Political Development in Underdeveloped Countries," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 5, 1957: 289-307.

5.01 This paper presents some hypotheses on the main sociological
factors which influence political processes and institutions in
5.18 underdeveloped countries. The following topics are discussed:
(1) uneven change in colonial societies; (2) the influence of
7.01 uneven change on colonial political movements; (3) the transfor-
mation of political movements after independence; (4) new patterns
7.11 of political participation and motivation; (6) the structure of
political institutions; and (7) the development of political
mediating mechanisms.

Propositions

7.12 (1) The probability of social and cultural friction will be increased if a society is characterized by uneven change (as is true of most underdeveloped nations.) (P. 302.)
Evidence: Generalization regarding underdeveloped countries; not specifically substantiated.

77TT Hoselitz, Bert F, "Urbanization and Economic Growth in Asia," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 6(1), October 1957: 42-54.

1.02 The article relates rate and type of urbanization in Asia to
economic growth. Asian capitals and other large cities are seen
3.01 as (1) relatively new; (2) experiencing recent rapid growth, (3)
leaders of cultural change, (4) socially disorganized with es-
5.09 pecially sharp educational, income, and outlook differences be-
tween strata, aggravated by high in- and out-migration rates.
5.111 South Asian countries may often by "over-urbanized," having urban
dwellers as 13% of population, with 30% of the labor force non-
agricultural. At a similar level of urbanization, Western

countries had 55 per cent of the labor force non-agricultural. This suggests: (a) the difficulties of maintaining adequate public services in cities given low earning capacity of workers, and (b) that migrants are "pushed" from rural areas, rather than "pulled" toward cities. The cultural distance between city and countryside is generally greater in Asia than it ever was in Europe. As we expect, a much higher percentage of urban than of rural workers are in secondary and tertiary industry. Though urban incomes are higher, at least half of urban populations live close to a subsistence level amid mass poverty. Daniel Lerner's recent study is cited to show direct relations between degree of urbanization and literacy, and between literacy and the importance of mass media. Lerner found these relations in comparing countries, but they probably hold also for different regions of a single country. Perhaps, attempts should be made to develop smaller urban places, thus creating a more viable system of cities to replace the present dominance of primate cities. This would require dispersal of non-agricultural occupations. Increasing interest of planners in small-scale, rather than large-scale or cottage industry, seems valid. Urban planning, generally neglected, is vital to fostering a system of varied-size cities, and to decreasing the social costs of urbanization.

Propositions

1.02 5.09 (1) If a city is large enough for the introduction of new ideas and new techniques--through advanced education, new forms of business organization, new administrative policies--, then they may play a large role in economic development by the mediation of new, "more modern," forms of social action.
Evidence: Speculation.

1.02 5.10 (2) If it is difficult to make a living in the country and/or if it is dangerous to live in the country, then rural inhabitants are more probable to migrate to the urban areas and to the perceived security offered by the urban areas.
Evidence: Historical reference; speculation.

1.02 5.10 7.13 (3) If a population is more concentrated, if there is a higher degree of literacy among a population, if there is propinquity to centers of political decision-making, then that population is more likely to be politically involved than is a population that does not have any or all of these characteristics.
Evidence: Speculation.

1.02 (4) If a population has a higher degree of literacy and a much
greater degree of response to mass communication media, then
5.15 that population is more likely to be susceptible to various
forms of political propaganda than a population which does
not have these characteristics.
Evidence: Speculation.

1.02 (5) If a population is "over-urbanized" (i.e., if urbanization
has "run-ahead" of industrialization), then that population
5.09 will have a greater probability of political and social
instability.
7.11 Evidence: Speculation.

1.02 (6) If a family is an urban family, then it is likely to have a
higher dependency rate than a rural family since there are
5.061 less opportunities available for sharing in the work.
Evidence: Speculation.
5.09

1.02 (7) If an urban population is typified by a greater dependency
rate, a higher cost of living, and consumption patterns
5.03 different (more inclusive) than a rural population, then
urban populations will be unable to save very much and will
5.09 be in debt as often as rural people, in spite of the higher
incomes of urban people.
Evidence: Speculation.

1.02 (8) As urbanization increases, so too does literacy, the use of
mass communication media, and the additional consequences
5.09 that follow from these.
Evidence: Speculation.
5.15

7700 Mehta, Asoka, "The Mediating Role of the Trade Union in Underdeveloped Countries," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 6(1), October 1957: 16-23.

1.02 The role of trade unions differs for developed and under-
developed countries. In Asian countries, unions tend to be weak
5.10 partly because they rely heavily on government machinery for
negotiation rather than on voluntary collective bargaining. To
accomplish the primary objective, which should be national economic
growth, unions must be independent but also willing to cooperate
with other sectors of the economy. Where a large percentage of
industry is state-owned, unions should assist the state in removing

bureaucratic inefficiency, in educating workers, and in sound scientific factory management. Given the problem of "modernizing" the attitudes of workers and the techniques of production, unions should (1) observe self-imposed wage restraint, (2) teach their membership thrift, (3) increase productivity through propaganda, (4) induce displaced workers to undergo training in new skills, (5) induce workers to participate in social security and savings schemes, and (6) demand no greater a share of profits than will allow management adequate incentives and funds for reinvestment. Such union action would aim to (a) restrict consumption, and (b) increase production. Such policies, necessary to underdeveloped countries, are contrary to those pursued by unions in the West. Unions must support subsidies and protection for small-scale, decentralized development though it may slightly increase the cost of living of organized workers. Further, unions should sharply reduce their political activities while working to increase the faith of their membership in the legally constituted government and its development plans. Another role is to cushion the impact of urbanization of rural areas, and on rural migrants to cities with cooperative housing schemes as a potentially-important program. "Trade unions should try to prepare workers for...inevitable changes on the path of economic growth....it remains the responsibility of trade unions to cultivate among workers fine traits of personality and culture and noble qualities like honesty, integrity, and loyalty to the cause of unionism."

Propositions

1.02 (1) If an economy is developing, then "the profit motive" will
be manifest by businessmen and workers—hence, attempts at
7.231 rationalization will be frustrated unless some provision is
made for that manifest motive to be channeled into behaviors
constructive to the policy of rationalization.
Evidence: Speculation.

1.02 (2) If unorganised sections of the economy are protected from the
organised sections of the economy, the price level of con-
3.09 sumer goods is likely to rise.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.
3.10

1.02 (3) If labor conditions are poor and workers are impatient over
the seeming inability of collective bargaining to secure
3.10 immediate betterment, then labor unions are likely to be
radical in orientation.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

4.09 (4) If an agricultural worker with no exposure to industrial
labor migrates to the city to obtain industrial employment,
4.10 it is possible that he will be unable to adjust to the impersonality
and discipline of industrial labor.
5.10 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

77VV Shils, Edward A., "The Intellectuals, Public Opinion, and Economic Development," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 4, October 1957: 55-62.

3.12 The government, least of all where it claims to be democratic,
should not be its own sole judge on matters of efficiency. The
5.06 chief organs of an instructed public opinion—of a critical attitude
which shares the general objectives of the government—are
5.112 the press and the university. Conditions in developing countries
do not permit the paying of good salaries for these positions,
however. Consequently, most intellectuals take positions in the
government and few educated people fill roles criticizing the
government.

Propositions

3.12 (1) If a criticizing function is fulfilled in a country (e.g.,
by the press or by academies), then that country's economic
5.06 development will be enhanced. (P. 61.)
Evidence: None.
5.112

77WW van der Kroef, J.M., "Economic Development in Indonesia: Some Cultural and Social Impediments," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 4, 1956: 116-133.

1.023 The impact of social and cultural values is a primary cause
of Indonesian economic stagnation. The Indonesian cultural
3.12 milieu is very unfavorable to economic growth. The author presents
many examples of the effect of these values.
5.113

Propositions

3.12 (1) The probability of economic development will be decreased if
a community's culture does not favor behavior conducive to
5.112 economic growth. (P. 116-133.)
Evidence: Historical analysis of the Indonesian
5.113 experience.

77XX Friedman, J.R.P., "Developmental Planning in Haiti: A Critique of the United Nations Report," Econ. Devel. Cult Change, 5(4), November 1955: 39-54.

1.042 This article discusses the United Nations report on development in Haiti (1949). Four central questions regarding development are considered: (1) "Whose interests are relevant in recommending a course of action leading to 'economic development'? (2) Are the proposed develomment measures adequate for meeting the estimated future needs of the country? (3) To what extent is popular (local) participation in planning and project work essential to the success of induced economic development? (4) Is there an objective 'structure' of economic development which must be adhered to in planning for economic development in regard to both the priorities and the geographic organization of projects?"

4.01

Propositions

1.042 (1) A strong desire to increase the material condition of a society is a necessary psychological condition for economic development. (P. 46.)

5.123 Evidence: Unsubstantiated, but a footnote reference suggests that this proposition is stated elsewhere:

1) Measures for the Economic Development of Underdeveloped Countries, UN, N.Y., 1961, p. 13.
2) Rostow, Process of Economic Growth, Oxford, 1953, p. 11.

77YY Geertz, Clifford, "Religious Belief and Economic Behavior in a Central Javanese Town," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 4, 1955-56: 134-158.

1.023 The author discusses the relationship between religious attitudes and economic behavior in a case study of Modjokuta, a small town in East-Central Java. Special emphasis is placed upon the differing economic position of the Chinese, the more orthodox Moslems, and those Moslems practicing the so-called "Javanese Religion."

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Propositions

3.12 (1) The probability that a particular form of economic behavior will be performed is influenced by the general cultural values of an individual or group. (Pp. 134-158.)

5.112 Evidence: Historical analysis of the Javanese experience.

77ZZ Williams, Emilio, "Protestantism as a Factor of Cultural Change in Brazil," Econ. Devel. Cult. Change, 3, 1954-1955: 321-333.

1.032 This article analyzes the cultural impact of Protestantism
on Brazil. It demonstrates that conversion to Protestantism
5.064 results in changing attitudes toward such matters as gambling,
smoking, drinking, sex, and religious contributions, and the new
5.14 attitudes differ considerably from typical Brazilian cultural
norms.
5.16

Propositions

5.064 (1) The probability that a change will be accepted is increased
if some elements of the older customs are incorporated in
5.122 the new habits. (P. 325.)
Evidence: Example of converts to Protestantism
5.113 retaining some habits similar to those Catholics
which eases the acceptance of Protestantism.

78A Hsieh, S. C., and T. H. Lee, "Agricultural Development and Resource Problems in Taiwan," Econ. Rev. Bank of China, 94, November-December 1961: 9-19.

1.028 The purpose of this paper is to analyze some basic facts and
difficulties underlying Taiwan agriculture and to indicate some
4.11 conclusions and suggestions for improvement in the future. From
the standpoints of present production capacity and available
resources in Taiwan agriculture, it is calculated that the future
annual growth rate of agricultural production in the coming five
to ten years may decline to about 3%. This growth rate will be
lower than the annual growth rate of domestic requirement for
food. High income elasticity of demand for food and rapid growth
rate of population will have an important bearing on food consumption. Therefore, to meet the food requirement, stepping up
production of farm products to augment supply will be the most
important measure for future economic development in Taiwan.

79A Bhatt, V.V., "Some Notes on Balanced and Unbalanced Growth," Econ. J., 75, March 1965: 1-10.

3.01
3.02
The purpose of this article is to clarify the issues involved in the controversy between the balanced growth theorists and those who advocate unbalanced growth and to suggest that the conflict between these two seemingly different prescriptions for growth is more apparent than real; unbalanced growth has justification only in the perspective of balanced growth and the movement of the economy towards balanced growth is not inconsistent with and may actually be facilitated by a strategy of unbalanced growth. Further, it is shown how both these concepts are operationally meaningful in formulating as well as implementing development programs. In both these tasks, the role of the State is considered to be basic but there can be no sovereign rule about the actual extent of its active participation in both these activities.

79B Singer, H.W., "External Aid: For Plans or Projects," Econ. J., 75(299), 1965: 539-545.

3.07
3,17
The paper discusses the case for and against tying aid to developing countries to specific projects and to general development plans. For political reasons a donor country often finds it easier to finance a particular project which it can approve, or where aid can be tied to the supply of its own equipment. If the project is one to which the receiving country attaches high priority, it would be carried out even without aid, and the additional finance actually makes it possible to finance some further project of which the donor might not necessarily approve. If the project is one which the receiving country would not otherwise have carried out, it may also involve the diversion of local resources to a low priority activity. If donor and receiver have differing opinions on the most desirable priorities, the position is even more complicated. In fact, it is artificial to consider individual projects in isolation, the effect of good planning is maximized by a properly co-ordinated policy. Aid linked to a general development plan is preferred by receiving countries, and where donor and receiver agree on priorities and general policy, this, or even general budget aid, is clearly desirable. Where this agreement is not present, or where the development plans of the receiving country change frequently for political reasons, it is less appropriate. Plan aid through aid consortia combined with technical planning and project assistance to developing countries with some emphasis on multilateral assistance may be on the increase in the future.

79C Helleiner, Gerald K., "The Fiscal Role of the Marketing Boards in Nigerian Economic Development, 1947-61," Econ. J. 74(295), 1964: 582-610.

1.012 3.08 4.04 The performance of Nigeria's Marketing Boards is better interpreted in terms of their success with the collection of revenues for government sponsored economic development than in terms of their stabilization objectives. This essay describes the manner in which substantial surpluses were earned, and expended by the Marketing Boards between 1947 and 1961, through the earning of surpluses (profits) on their trading operations, and considers the extent of the resulting burdens borne by various types of export producer. It is shown that the stagnant or declining export markets of the post-1954 period produced smaller, though still significant, trading surpluses than had been enjoyed between 1947 and 1954. The proportions of export producer incomes withdrawn for government use in the later period were also smaller than in the earlier one.

Official Nigerian attitudes towards the resulting reserves and towards the accumulation of further surpluses underwent considerable evolution during the postwar period. Originally, Marketing Board trading surpluses were regarded as largely fortuitous and the reserves were primarily earmarked for future stabilization efforts. In the eastern and western regions, there occurred a transition to the view that existing reserves could legitimately be used for development and that consciously planned Marketing Board trading surpluses could constitute important sources of revenue for the financing of the new development programs. Marketing Board expenditures were allocated to regional production development boards, general development programs of the regional and federal governments, agricultural research and development on own account, universities, and private enterprises in the areas of manufacturing, finance, and real estate.

Objections can be raised to the use of Marketing Boards as revenue collectors for development programs in the Nigerian context. Export taxes, of which Marketing Board trading surpluses are a type, involve some inequity, some distortion of the production structure, and possibly some reduction of private incentives and savings opportunities. Moreover, some Nigerian Marketing Board expenditures were badly allocated. It is argued that the earning and subsequent spending of their trading and other surpluses were, nevertheless, on balance, beneficial to the economic development of Nigeria.

Propositions

1.012 3.08 (1) The probability that a desired change will be accepted is reduced if government action errodes the conditions under which adoption of the change is favorably perceived.(P.601.)

4.04 Evidence: Example of Nigeria where operation of marketing boards taxes agricultural produce and thereby makes agriculture a less attractive occupation while the government is exhorting the urban unemployed to return to the land.

7.231

79D Hill, T.P., "Growth and Investment According to International Comparisons," Econ. J., 74(294), 1964: 287-304.

3.02

3.03

3.13

The last decade has witnessed some marked differences among the countries of western Europe and North America both in rates of growth and in shares of national product devoted to investment. For the largest of these countries growth of GNP has, in fact, been fairly closely associated with gross investment, although the association is not quite so strong for growth of output per person employed. In any case, by no means all of the smaller countries fitted into the pattern observed for the larger countries, mainly because northern countries tended to have high rates of investment without particularly rapid growth, the characteristic feature of their investment being the very large share of GNP devoted to construction, doubtless because of their severe climates and low densities of population.

On examining the two main types of investment separately, it emerged that there was no correlation whatsoever between investment in machinery and equipment and the amount of construction undertaken, whether including or excluding residential construction. Moreover, no connection whatever could be observed between growth and construction, so that in so far as any general association existed between growth and investment it was entirely attributable to machinery and equipment. The exaplanation for this concerns the much greater opportunities for technical progress afforded by machinery than construction and also the difference in average lifetimes of the assets involved. The main numerical results suggest that between two and three per cent of GNP needs to be devoted to investment in machinery and equipment for each one per cent rate of growth. In addition, however, around ten per cent of GNP is usually devoted to construction, and this has relatively little influence on the growth rate achieved which consequently does not normally vary proportionately to total investment.

79E Hahn, F.H., and R.C.O. Matthews, "The Theory of Economic Growth: A Survey," Econ. J., 74(296), 1964: 781-902.

3.01 This is the fifth article in the series of surveys of economic theory, published with the support of the Rockefeller
3.02 Foundation. The authors deal with developments in the theory of economic growth since 1949. The detailed arrangement of contents is as follows: (1) Growth Without Technical Progress. (a) Equilibrium Methodology. (b) Point of Departure: the Harrod-Domar Model. (c) Unemployment Equilibrium Models. (d) The Neo-Classical Model: Flexibility in Capital-Output Ratio. (e) Flexibility in the Saving-Income Ratio. (f) Induced Changes in the Rate of Population Growth. (g) Non-Steady-State Behavior. (h) Two-Sector Models. (i) Depreciation. (2) Technical Progress. (a) The Simplest Case. Neutrality and Non-Neutrality. (b) Non-Constant Returns to Scale. (c) Non-Malleable Capital. The Vintage Approach. (d) Learning (e) Factor Scarcities and Technical Progress. (3) Linear Economic Models. (a) The Neumann Model. (b) The Neumann Model with Consumption. (c) The closed Leontief Model. (d) "Sausage-Machine" Models. (e) Stability. (f) Efficient Accumulation. (g) Turnpike Theorems. (4) Retrospect. Bibliography.

79F McKinnon, Ronald I., "Foreign Exchange Constraints in Economic Development and Efficient Aid Allocation," Econ. J., 74(294), 1964: 388-409.

3.16 An attempt is made to answer the question "how does a dollar of foreign aid differ from a dollar of domestic saving in its
3.17 impact on the growth rate of a developing economy?" An equilibrium Harrod-Domar growth model, in which the production function uses both foreign and domestic goods as inputs, permits one to conceive of separate domestic saving and foreign exchange constraints on growth. The export possibilities for the developing economy are assumed to depend directly on the amount of capital formation it achieves rather than passively reacting to foreign demand conditions. A rigid price system is posited which implies qualitative changes in the nature of exports as development proceeds—items of increasing industrial complexity are produced for export to prevent changes in the terms of trade from immiserizing growth. Upper limits on the rate at which exports can be increased in this way are imposed. In this simplified context, different values of saving and export parameters are assumed and used to deduce the amount of foreign capital needed to achieve specified growth rates. In particular, pump priming models are developed incorporating rising average saving and export propensities. The time path of foreign aid transfers for a given

growth rate to become self-sustaining (free of external aid) is traced for illustrative values of these saving and export parameters. The main conclusion of the paper is that foreign capital transfers can have a large "pay-off" in terms of growth in the receiving country if domestic saving is "large" relative to foreign exchange availability. In this case, a foreign capital transfer is much more than a transfer of saving from a mature to a developing economy; it has the effect of releasing a bottleneck.

Propositions

3.02 (1) The probability that foreign aid to a country will spur substantial economic growth increases if the recipient
3.17 nation has acted to raise the general educational level of its population. (P. 407.)
6.16 Evidence: Unsubstantiated assertion.

79G Baldwin, Robert E., "Export Technology and Development from a Subsistence Level," Econ. J., 73(289), 1963: 80-92.

3.11 A typical growth pattern among underdeveloped countries has been the introduction—with the aid of foreign entrepreneurs and
3.17 capital—of large modern export industries into essentially backward, subsistence economies. Because of the relative cheapness of unskilled labor and certain natural resources in these economies, two general types of commodities usually proved most profitable as export industries, i.e., labor-intensive agricultural commodities and mineral products.

The extent to which such export development induced significant additional growth by means of the spread of better productive techniques to other parts of the economy depended to a considerable degree upon the technological nature of the production function for the export industry. More specifically, the size and qualitative nature of the labor, capital, and material input-coefficients utilized in the industry and the importance of economies of scale in those industries supplying the export industry or dependent upon it as an input source were the relevant characteristics that greatly affected the degree of further growth. From the demand side the most favorable type of export industry was one requiring labor, capital, and material inputs that fit the existing relative factor conditions of underdeveloped countries. On the basis of this factor such export products as tea, coffee, and tobacco were more favorable than oil, copper, or bauxite. However, the latter industries were more favorable in creating skilled local labor—a supply repercussion that is most important to the spread of development to other sectors. Thus, the first set of export industries, although well adapted to the initial labor endowment, did not provide an impetus for eliminating the backwardness of the labor force. The other group of export commodities provided a supply impetus for further growth but the demand repercussion was so small that additional development was confined only to a small part of the economy. These are the two types of economies that characterize much of the underdeveloped world today.

Propositions

3.11 (1) The probability that foreign entrepreneurs will introduce new technological techniques into a developing economy is
3.14 affected by non-economic considerations, such as social and political factors, as well as by purely economic
5.023 considerations. (P. 84.)
Evidence: Historical analysis.
5.111

3.05 (3) The probability that an individual will assume a risk (which includes innovation) increases with income. Producers with
3.11 very low incomes prefer low but safe returns to the possibility of greater returns with greater risk. (P. 91.)
Evidence: Unsubstantiated assertion.

79H Reddaway, W.B., "The Economics of Underdeveloped Countries," Econ. J., 73(289), 1963: 1-12.

3.02 This 1962 Presidential Address to the Economics Section of the British Association starts by considering what "the economics
3.17 of underdeveloped countries" really means: there is no need for a new set of economic principles, but the problems need to be considered on the basis of different assumptions. These do not correspond with the ones suitable for developed countries either under "full employment" or under depression conditions.

The low level of consumption and income per head in underdeveloped countries is frequently attributed to lack of real capital (including arable land); but much may be achieved by applying better methods to the capital which is available.

As machinery must mainly be imported from abroad, attempts to increase the stock of capital rapidly are liable to lead to a balance of payments problem, unless there is a readily expansible market for something which the country can produce in increased volume. This problem cannot be cured by willingness to do greater saving.

Some types of capital assets (e.g., rural roads) can be constructed with local labor using readily available local materials and simple equipment. If such works are undertaken on a large scale through credit creation, however, the Keynesian multiplier process will not simply raise income to generate the necessary saving, because the secondary demand will largely be for food and other things for which output is not limited only by lack of demand. The balance of payments is likely to deteriorate, unless this increase in secondary demand is counterbalanced by taxation.

Developed countries can help not only through aid, but also by making trade facilities available. Admission of "cheap Asiatic textiles" causes difficulties to particular producers in the West, but these are as nothing compared with the problems which their exclusion causes to the whole development of the poverty-stricken countries of Asia.

Propositions

3.11 (1) The probability that an individual will adopt new methods increases as the individual perceives a personal gain from
3.15 innovation. (P. 11.)

Evidence: Generalization from the Indian case; no specific substantiation is given.

79I Dubey, Vinod, "The Marketed Agricultural Surplus and Economic Growth in Underdeveloped Areas," Econ. J., 73(292), 1963: 689-702.

1.021 Modern analyses of economic development of underdeveloped areas assign a crucial role to the proportion of agricultural
4.03 production marketed by the peasant. It has been argued that this proportion tends to behave in a perverse way for two reasons.
4.07 First, the peasant is underfed and, therefore, the increments in agricultural production tend to be consumed by him instead of
4.11 being marketed. Second, the peasant tends to react to increased productivity in agriculture by a reduction in the amount of effort. The props of the doctrine, namely, the peasants' low propensity to save, their high propensity to consume self-produced goods, and their irrational attitude as between more income and more leisure, are examined. Indirect evidence about the propensity to save (and to invest on farm improvements) the income elasticity of demand for food as compared to other commodities (based on Indian-family budget studies), the behavior of rural indebtedness, and the importance of the large peasant in the agricultural economy in India, is used to argue that the elasticity of agricultural production rather than the perverse behavior of the proportion of production marketed is the major problem hampering the growth of underdeveloped countries.

Propositions

3.08 (1) If individuals from an economy's underdeveloped sector are
exposed to the consumption patterns of the economy's advanced
3.15 sector, these individuals tend to desire the consumptive
patterns of the sector. (Pp. 691-692.)
Evidence: Generalization primarily from the Indian
example; no specific substantiation is given.

79J Carter, C.F., "The Economic Use of Brains," Econ. J., 72, March 1962: 1-11.

3.02 The author discusses the problem of the use of intelligent
people in England's future. An intelligent population is England's
6.16 prime asset. Since brains are "a scarce and important factor in
production," the presence of intelligent people in England is
analyzed as to social class, rising or falling rates of genius,
comparisons with other countries, and a plea for the recognition
of brains as an economic asset.

79K Lipton, M., "Balanced and Unbalanced Growth in Underdeveloped Countries," Econ. J., 72(287), 1962: 641-657.

3.01 The dispute between balanced growth and unbalanced growth is
unhelpful to economic planners. The doctrines are described, and
3.02 "balance" is shown to be normative, "growth" imprecise for it
fails to specify constraints, to distinguish total from per-head
3.07 income, or to select an index number. More basically, the argu-
ment confuses the two related problems: optimum investment/income
7.14 ratio and allocation criteria for given values of investment.
The assumptions of the dispute are ill-chosen. The State, supposedly passive before development, initiates the balanced growth or unbalanced growth process, then steps back: otherwise it could obtain unbalanced growth-inducements within a balanced growth-process, or balanced growth-capacity-utilization within a unbalanced growth-process, by land or tax reform. By assuming away such intervention, the balanced growth-unbalanced growth controversy supports vested anti-growth elements in underdeveloped countries. Sometimes, the assumptions, not the conclusions, of balanced growth and unbalanced growth conflict: balanced growth assumes quasi-perfect competition and a long time-horizon, unbalanced growth oligopoly and a short run. Absence of realism is revealed in the assumption that development problems are due to deficient or disproportioned demand, lack of "inducements" etc., with the further implicit (false) assumption of price and income-

elastic supply. Balance or inducement, without factor re-allocation yields inflation, not growth.

Extreme balanced growth--the view that sectors should expand at equal rates--ignores variable returns. Moderate balanced growth--Lewis' belief that all sectors should grow together--forgets inferior goods and superior techniques, the essence of growth. Income-elasticity balanced growth is unstable without further state intervention(ruled out by assumption), since income-elasticity of demand (1) varies with income, (2) is unadapted to income-elasticity of supply. Balanced growth, moreover, involved making luxuries and lowering savings ratios.

Hirschman's unbalanced growth rightly emphasizes sequence efficiency as an investment criterion, but his inducement dichotomy between social over-head and directly productive capital has logical weaknesses, and blurs three distinctions: (1) sectors where state can compel vs. those where it can only induce; (2) privately-profitable vs. "only" socially profitable projects; (3) producer-goods and consumer-goods sectors.

Propositions

(1) If social mobility is introduced into a previously static society, wants and desires previously denied expression by custom and bigotry will become effective market demands. (Pp. 646-647.)

Evidence: Unsubstantiated assertion.

79L Staley, C.E.,"A Case Study of Response to Agricultural Prices in Costa Rica," Econ. J., 72(282), June 1961: 432-436.

1.049
4.08
4.11

Though certainly not unknown, situations exhibiting sharply the response of producers to change in an economic variable are infrequent, and have rarely been described. This study reports the production result of the setting of a minimum price for crops by the Costa Rican government, which it will pay if the market does not meet that price.

Propositions

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(1) If the government sets a mininum price for crops which it must pay to the producer if the market price is not better, then the producer is likely to adjust his production priorities to match those established by the government (as reflected in the comparative prices for crops), all other things--climate, soil, etc.,--being equal.

Evidence: Quantitative comparison of Costa Rican agricultural prices and production, 1949-61.

80A Shand, R.T., "The Development of Trade and Specialization in a Primitive Economy," Econ. Record. 41 (94),1965: 193-206.

1.051 This article considers the problems of how to expand pro-
duction and income of economic units in the subsistence sector
4.18 of a primitive economy such as Papua-New Guinea, once one or
more of the factors of production initially available have become fully employed.

Three ways of obtaining further growth are examined: new techniques, greater specialization in resource use among units, and additions to the resources of units. Where, as is usual, a large proportion of the resources initially available to a unit is absorbed in subsistence production, the application of technical innovations to such production is of particular importance for the development of cash-cropping. This means that subsistence production should receive at least as much attention in programs of research and extension as is given to other crops.

The importance of the proportion of initially available resources used in subsistence production is again evident in the analysis of resource specialization between units in the subsistence sector. The opportunity for the overall development of the sector by this means is shown to depend, in the first instance, upon the capacity of units to produce a surplus of subsistence products. It is only when the production of such a surplus is possible that other factors, such as the levels of technology in export production and of transport costs, will commence to influence the degree to which specialization and trade will develop. Intervention is thus not only needed to increase resource productivity in export production and to reduce prohibitive transport costs, but also to increase resource productivity in subsistence production. In many cases the latter type of intervention may be an essential prerequisite to the development of internal trade and specialization.

80B Fisk, E.K., "Planning In a Primitive Economy: From Pure Subsistence to the Production of a Market Surplus," Econ. Record, 40 (98), 1964: 156-174.

1.051 In an earlier article (Economic Record, Vol. 38, December
1962), with Papua-New Guinea as his frame of reference, the au-
4.07 thor examined the factors determining the level of production in
a subsistence unit in isolation, and the initial effect of changes
5.113 in technology and in the population/land ratio on the production
pattern. The present article extends the inquiry to the stage
where the subsistence group begins to participate in the monetized
transactions of the advanced sector. The study is confined to

the point where cash cropping and other activities for monetary reward are a supplement to subsistence production but do not replace it.

The rate of growth in supplementary cash production depends on the response of the subsistence group to two opposing forces: the incentive transmitted to the subsistence group by market forces (incentive factor) and the resistance or inertia of the subsistence group to changes of the type required for supplementary cash production (response factor). The internal and external components of the incentive and response factors are analysed, and the operation and interaction of these factors are examined in the form of a simple model in order to see how effective growth in cash production is achieved and how planned intervention can assist.

Propositions

5.113 (1) The probability that traditional ways will be rejected and exchanged for modern values is a function of the perceived advantages of adopting the new ways and the strength of inertia or resistance to change which measures adherence to tradition. This relationship is strengthened as the modern values are perceived as being increasingly opposed to the traditional values. (Pp. 157-158).

Evidence: Logical extension of theoretical premises and based upon study of subsistence sectors in New Guinea. The proposition is not explicitly substantiated.

80C Henderson, R.F., "The Finance of Growth of Small Business and Of Development Of Inventions," Econ. Record, 40 (98), 1964: 398-411.

1.06
3.03 Financial facilities in Australia are good on the whole, but there is room for improvement in facilities for the finance of small business and the finance of inventions.

Business too small to make a public issue on the Stock Exchange need facilities for raising fresh ordinary share capital. In Britain such capital is provided by the Industrial and Commercial Finance Corporation; in the United States by Small Business Investment Companies which have had great success. Similar arrangements should be made in Australia.

Another need is adequate factory space for rental to small business. This should be provided on industrial estates of substantial size as is done in many other countries. Such estates are also good town planning, and facilitate the provision of management advisory services to small business. They should be provided, either by public or private enterprise, around the capital cities without any subsidy element and also at carefully chosen growth points elsewhere with whatever subsidy is desired, as a key element in decentralization of industry policy. The absence of such facilities is adding considerably to the difficulties of financing growth among small firms in Australia. Their provision would increase the efficiency of the economy.

A national body is needed now in Australia to organize and finance the development of inventions which have commercial promise. Such inventions may be made by private individuals in small firms or in universities. They will need careful screening; the organization of development is a difficult, slow and expensive business; "Unisearch" at the University of New South Wales has made a start on a small scale; it might be best to expand it to a national scale.

Propositions

No Propositions.

80D Fisk, E.K., "Planning in a Primitive Economy Special Problems of Papula - New Guinea," Econ. Record, 38(84), 1962: 462-478.

1.051 This article examines the problems of planning economic de-
velopment for economic development for economics containing sub-
4.06 sistence sectors, with special reference to New Guinea. The au-
thor concludes that it is necessary to raise production in the
4.07 subsistence sector. This is accomplished by establishing economic
linkages with the advanced sector allowing: (1) the growth of
demand, and (2) the flow of financial and technical resources to
the subsistence sector.

Propositions

1.051 (1) The probability that modern attitudes and techniques
will be accepted in the subsistence sector of an
4.07 economy increases as economic linkages are established
between the subsistence and advanced sectors. (Economic
linkages include transportation facilities, distribution
systems, and government extension services). These

contacts help to create incentives and opportunities. (P. 468.)

Evidence: Unsubstantiated assumption based upon theories of economic development.

80E Fisk, E.K., "Special Development Problems of a Plural Society: The Malayan Example," Econ. Record, 38 (82), 1962: 209-225.

1.029 This paper considers the problems deriving from imbalance between political power and economic advancement in a multi-racial

5.062 society, and its effect on economic growth.

In many underdeveloped countries the presence of substantial

5.064 non-indigenous minorities is a complicating factor in programming for economic development. This is particularly so where the non-indigenous minority dominates certain vital sectors of the economy.

In Malaya, as in many other countries of Southeast Asia, the advanced sector of the economy is dominated by the overseas Chinese. This paper considers the nature and extent of non-indigenous domination of the advanced sector of the Malayan economy, and its effect on development planning. It is shown that this feature of the social and economic organization of Malaya is an impediment to economic development, in that the allocation of available resources must be determined by considerations other than the requirements for optimum growth of the economy. The reasons for this are analysed and remedial action is discussed. The implications of this analysis for other countries with similar problems are considered particularly for countries where such problems are in an earlier stage of development. (Pp. 209-225.)

Propositions

1.029 (1) The probability of viable national development is reduced if political power and economic power are

5.002 vested in separate racial groups. (P. 209.)

Evidence: Unsubstantiated assumption.

1.029 (2) If economic balances exist between groups in a
society, then the factors involving the imbalances
5.06 tend to be cumulative in their impact and tend there-
fore to increase rather than reduce the extent of the
imbalance (all other things being equal). (P. 214.)
Evidence: 1) logical deduction from economic
relationships; and 2) analysis of the Malayan case.

80F **Campbell, K.O., "Current Agricultural Development and Its Implications As Regards the Utilization of Resources", Econ. Record, 32 (62), 1956: pp. 119-134.**

1.06 This article deals with Australian agriculture and its
relation to the rest of the economy. The development of
4.03 agriculture is traced from approximately 1945 to the present,
with changes in the land basic, changes in the labor force,
4.10 capital investment and the role of technology being used as
reference points or explanatory factors in this analysis of
4.12 agricultural development.

Propositions

No Propositions.

81A **Khuda-Baksh, Malik, "Land Reforms in West Pakistan," Econ. Observer, 14(17 and 18), September 1960: 7-8, and 10.**

1.022 To derive the full benefit from the land, its equitable
distribution is essential. The Planning Commission of Pakistan
4.14 in 1954 pointed out that 65% of the owners with holdings of less
than five acres each owned less area as compared with 0.1 per
cent of the landowners holding 500 acres or more. Such a defect
in agrarian structure showed land reform to be one of the major
national problems. In January 1959, the President announced his
9-point program and the aim of his government with regard to
land reform. This paper discusses the kinds of holdings under
the land reforms. It enumerates the restrictions on partitioning of joint holdings and terms of alienations and inheritance, and summarizes the credit facilities given to the tenant
owners by the new regime. The article explains the scheme for
compulsory consolidation of holdings and Land Utilization Ordinance, and discusses the impact of the land reforms and the
probable benefits of this radical change for the country.

82A Joshi, P.C., and M.R. Rao, "Changes in Literacy and Education: Study of Villages in Uttar Pradesh and Punjab," Econ. Weekly, 17(27), 1965: 1061-1068.

5.062 This study suggests that the creation of educational opportunities
in rural India has not been followed up by their
6.12 effective utilization. Analysis of the increases occurring in
certain villages over five years led to some important observations.
7.21 The increase in the proportion of literates is much more marked
among males than females. The relative literacy of different
castes shows a significant shift in favor of backward and scheduled
castes, but economic differences appear to assume more importance
at higher rather than lower levels of education. For example,
education beyond the intermediate level is concentrated among the
cultivating castes only.

82B Nadiman, S.B., "Agriculture and Institutional Planning," Econ. Weekly, 17(5/7), 1965: 283-292.

1.021 Three major observations are presented and examined. (1)
Owner-farmers in India are relatively few and are greatly outnumbered
4.05 by the combined total of (a) moneylenders, traders, farmers-cum-moneylenders,
and moneylenders-cum-traders, and (b) the vast
4.06 numbers of landless farm workers and tenants. In order to survive,
the owner-farmer continuously yields to (a) while gradually descending
4.17 to the level of (b). (2) The Government lacks a clear
fiscal policy for rural areas as a result of lack of data and
7.23 consequently conflicting hypotheses. No clear picture can therefore
emerge on whether there is net flow into or out of agriculture.
(3) The cooperative movement has not gained due recognition
because (i) the Government has no consistent policy and the
policy adopted is not fully implemented and (ii) the cooperative
organization is dominated by vested interests perpetuating their
stranglehold on the structure of agriculture. The stranglehold
works through the market mechanism. In subsistence areas, it is
the cultivator-cum-monelender-cum-landlord, in cash crop areas it
is the moneylender-cum-shopkeeper, and in commercialized-monetized
areas it is the monelender-cum-trader, who benefit most. In such
circumstances, measures such as the fixing of miminum prices, the
licensing of trade or compulsory procurement will not ease the
difficulty of drawing supplies into the markets. The credit
structure needs first to be overhauled. Accompanying measures
would be a policy for land management to get the maximum out of
the soil.

82C Rao, C.H.H., "Agricultural Growth and Stagnation in India," Econ. Weekly, 17(9), 1965: 407-411.

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An analysis was made of the trends in agricultural growth in the country as a whole and in different states during the period 1949-1950 to 1961/1962 in order to determine the main ingredients of some past experience and to examine some of the current hypotheses used to explain the relative stagnation of the agricultural sector. Attention is drawn to the policy implications of those explanations that appear more relevant. Separate growth rates were estimated for two seven-year periods (1949/1950 to 1955/1956 and 1955/1956 to 1961/1962). It is estimated that the rate of foodgrain output decreased from 4.4 per cent in the first period to 3.8 per cent in the second, so that the growth rate of aggregate crop output remained more or less constant at 4 per cent despite an acceleration in the rate of growth of non-foodgrains from 3 to 4.5 perccent. Examination of the relative contributions of different periods revealed that area accounted for 48 per cent of growth in output over the 13-year span; its contribution declined significantly from 72 per cent to 23 per cent between the two periods; increases in productivity per acre accounted for 77 per cent of output growth in the second period. The inter-state disparities in the growth of agricultural output were quite marked. Productivity per acre has become a predominant factor in output growth. There was a marked shift in the crop pattern in different states. On the whole, high overall progress was associated with balanced growth between food and non-food grains. Explaining the disparities in growth in different states, it is pointed out that farm size gave insufficient indication of the income level. Output per acre was generally higher among the smaller farms and showed a significant decline with increasing farm size. No precise relationship between the conditions of tenure and agricultural development was discernible. However, there is a strong positive association between the proportion of area under tenancy and the productive capacity of land. The growth in productivity and output in different states was found to be signifionntly associated with the increase in the irrigated area. It is concluded that output can still be expanded profitably through the traditional irrigated farming, and the role of science and technology in promoting agricultural growth needs to be recognized.

82D Aurora, G.S., "Economy of a Tribal Village," Econ. Weekly, 16(39), 1964: 1551-1560.

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3.02

A description is given of the economic life of Bamanta, a village in Madhya Pradesh, predominantly inhabited by members of the Bhil, Bhilala, Kotwal and Patlia tribes. Its economy appears

5.03 highly self-sufficient, though the community does not have a steady
level of living and the majority of people are perpetually in debt
5.112 as a result of borrowing to meet requirements for seeds, consumption,
and religious ceremonies (in that order of importance). The
likelihood of any endogenous change taking place in this tradition-bound
economy is remote since "outside" commercial elements and
indigenous social institutions support each other to maintain its
stagnant equilibrium. Any force which could disturb this
equilibrium must, therefore, come from outside.

82E Doshi, S.L., "Village Traditions and Community Development," Econ. Weekly, 16(4), January 1964: 117-120.

1.021 This article discusses how traditional attitudes of thought
and action have hampered, or in some rare cases given an impetus
5.08 to, development schemes in some Bhil villages in Rajasthan. In
conditions where the pull of tradition is very strong, as in the
5.121 Bhil villages, effort to overcome them has to be equally resolute.
Many projects undertaken by development authorities in these
villages show scant regard for local conditions and deep-rooted prejudices
of the people. As a result, not only have these schemes
failed to make headway, but they have strengthened the resistance
to change.

82F Parvathamma, C., "Elections and 'Traditional Leadership' in a Mysore Village - I.," Econ. Weekly, 17(10), March 1964: 475-481.

1.021 This paper describes elections to the village panchayat board
in village Kshetra in Bellary district of Mysore state, held
5.062 during March/April 1960. In this village, the inter-caste political
relationships, particularly between the kshatriyas and the
7.09 lingayats (non-brahminical sect professing the worship of Shiva)
have been greatly influenced in recent years by elections even
7.21 though the traditional authority and the leadership of the
kshatriyas continue.

82G Nicholas, Ralph W., "Ecology and Village Structure in Deltaic West Bengal," Econ. Weekly, 15(28), July 1963: 1185-1196.

1.021 This paper attempts to apply the method of ecology--the study
of the relation between organism and environment--to two peasant
4.11 communities in Bengal. By comparing villages in which technology,
economy, and culture are similar, but between which there are

4.12 differences in environments, it is attempted to find differences of social structure, and show how these are connected with one another.
5.06 Two characteristic ways in which the Bengali peasants deal with the marshy, active delta environments are explored as significant steps intervening between environment and social structure. Active delta villages are ordinarily dispersed, linear or chain-link in layout, with houses being quite distant from one another. Moribund delta villages are usually nucleated and compact. Because of the pattern of evolution of active delta villages, it is found that land concentration in the moribund delta is much more pronounced than in the active delta. As a result of the lower degree of concentration, political power in the moribund delta villages is also found to be more dispersed than in the active delta villages.

82H Parthasarathy, G., "A South Indian Village After Two Decades: Vadamalaipuram," Econ. Weekly, 15(2), January 1963: 49-55.

1.021 This article is an account of the growth of a remote village in south India through the decades of the "depresssing forties"
4.05 and the "remarkable fifties." The visible changes in the agrarian structure of the village Vadamalaipuram are analyzed, on the basis
4.11 of a resurvey undertaken in 1958 by the Agricultural Economics Research Center of Madras. The reports of the surveys conducted
4.17 by the students of Madras University in 1961 and 1936 are used as bench marks. It is observed that the village has potentialities to attain new levels of output, shows a willingness to adopt better techniques and simple scientific methods for pest control and for animal husbandry, and has a liking for literacy. Against this is observed: (1) a shift in the crop pattern towards commercial crops, (2) only a slow rise in output, (3) stagnancy in income levels and in wage rates, (4) liquidation of a cooperative credit society which existed in 1961, and (5) a minor reduction in the number of dwelling houses.

82I Thorner, Daniel, "Peasant Economy as a Category in Economic History," Econ.Weekly, 15(28/30), July 1963: 1243-1252.

4.09 The author defines the concept of peasant economy in its economic framework. According to the author, the entire economy
4.11 of a country may be considered a "peasant economy" if all of the following five factors hold true: (1) half or more of total
4.15 production is agricultural, (2) half or more of the total working force is engaged in agriculture, (3) half or more of the agricul-
4.16 tural production is carried on by individual peasant families

working on their farms, primarily with family labor, (4) organized state power exists as distinguished from tribal organization, and (5) there is a marked rural-urban difference. With these specific characteristics outlined, the author analyzes the economic framework of tsarist Russia, Indonesia, India, Japan (up to World War I), Mexico (to the inter-war period), and modern China--as illustrations of "peasant economy."

82J Balogh, T., "Land Tenure, Education, and Development," Econ. Weekly, 14(12) March 1962: 513-514.

1.021 The author states that very little attention is being paid by
economists to the institutional requirements of agriculture and
4.07 agricultural education. The central problem of all underdeveloped
countries like India is the backwardness of agriculture which, in
6.04 turn, is due to certain institutional shortcomings such as unsatis-
factory land tenure which do not allow of any improvements in
6.07 agricultural production techniques, and lack of education. Educa-
tional reform tends to change attitudes not merely toward agricul-
6.08 tural progress, but toward technical knowledge in general. The
author is critical of the policy of regarding vocational training
as second-rate and not fit for the universities, since it causes
able young men to seek non-technical education. He strongly
advocate the example of nineteenth century United States which
introduced in the scheme of elementary education a strong vocational
bias toward agricultural techniques.

82K Maheshwari, B., "Two Years of Panchayati Raj in Rajasthan," Econ. Weekly, 14(21), May 1962: 845-848.

1.021 The article reviews briefly the panchayat legislation in the
state of Rajasthan and makes an evaluation of the working of the
5.08 system during the last two years. While the progress has been
assessed with regard to the increase in the population that is
7.21 covered by the movement and the general interest shown by the
villagers in the elections for the panchayats, the progress of its
working is studied from the standpoints of financial viability of
the institutions, the relationship between the elected members and
also between the different tiers of the system, the extent of
people's involvement in the development programs, etc. The author
feels that the panchayati raj has ceased to be an experiment and
has now taken root in the social system.

82L Nath, V., "Village Caste and Community," Econ. Weekly, 14(49), December 1962: 1877-1882.

1.021 On the basis of a case study of a Rajasthani village, the
article examines the question as to what is happening to the
5.08 villagers' feeling of "belonging" to the village and the caste in
the midst of rapid social and economic changes that are taking
5.062 place in rural India. Stating that the feeling of belonging in
this particular village rested on the following four main bases,
namely, (1) contiguous living, (2) isolation and concentration of
economic activity within the village, (3) prevalence of a particular
social system known as "jajmani", and (4) the caste system, the
author discusses in detail the changes that these factors are
being subjected to as a result of the socio-economic changes. It
is concluded that though the feeling of belonging to the village
is becoming weaker, that of belonging to the caste is becoming
stronger in some ways. Further, the village is in the process of
being transformed into a habitation containing a collection of
competing castes from its old integrated socio-economic structure.

82M Rao, M.S.A., "Economic Change and Rationality in a Fringe Village," Econ. Weekly, 14(39), September 1962: 1545-1549.

1.021 The article studies the question how far economic changes
initiated in a multi-caste fringe village situated at a distance
4.07 of about seven miles from Delhi have led to a process of self-sustained growth. The traditional subsistence economy of the village
4.10 under study had undergone a major change about 33 years ago when
the villagers took to growing market crops, viz., vegetables for
5.111 the urban market. The discussion covers the following four broad
aspects of the problem: (1) adjustments within the traditional
5.112 framework, (2) adoption of improved technology, (3) elements of
impersonality in dealings, and (4) prospects of self-prepetuating
process of development. On all these counts, the author's
observations are that, though changes are taking place in the
village, the nature of these changes are not such as to guarantee
a self-sustained process of economic growth, since the momentum
gained by them is unable to cross certain barriers imposed by the
traditional social structure and value system.

Propositions

1.021 (1) If an activity is lucrative, then there is a tendency for
the activity to be undertaken, even if it is traditionally
3.05 undesirable. (P. 1545.)

Evidence: Members of an Indian caste traditionally
3.14 "above" the cultivation of vegetables began to grow vegetables when it became materially advantageous to do so.

82N Sen, Amartya Kumar, "An Aspect of Indian Agriculture," *Econ. Weekly*, 14(4), February 1962: 243-246.

1.021 The note attempts to interpret certain broad relationships
that have been observed in Indian agriculture, mainly in the recent
4.09 studies in the economics of farm management conducted by the
government. The following relationships are observed: (1) When
4.11 family labor employed in agriculture is given an imputed value in
terms of the ruling wage rate, much of Indian agriculture seems
4.16 unremunerative. (2) The profitability of Indian agriculture increases
with the size of holding. (3) Productivity per acre decreases
with the size of holding. After giving a brief theoretical
explanation for the tendency to employ more labor units on family-based
farms than on wage-based farms, the author provides an interrelated
set of explanations for the three observations. The
factor that makes the crucicl difference is not the size as such,
which is only incidental, but the system of farming, viz., whether
it is family-based or wage-based.

82O Thorner, Daniel, "Context for Cooperatives in Rural India," *Econ. Weekly*, 14(4,5,6) February 1962: 251-266.

1.021 The article contains an account of the author's experiences
during the course of a tour through most of the Indian States,
4.16 undertaken to study the functioning of agricultural cooperatives
in the country and also his views on some important issues relating
4.17 to cooperation. The author feels that the service cooperatives will
not provide a transition to joint farming and that in the present
7.13 Indian framework, cooperative farming will have to be imposed.
His main conclusion drawn from his tour experiences is that the preconditions
for the success of rural cooperatives, viz., social
equality, political democracy and economic viability, do not
exist in village India and that the following two things must
happen if cooperatives were to succeed in the country: (1) the
power of village oligarchs must be curtailed; and (2) the government
must become an instrument of the ordinary people and must
be considered as such by them.

82P Hitchcock, John T., "Centrally Planned Rural Development in India," *Econ. Weekly*, 13(10), March 1961: 435-441.

1.021 This article studies the points of view of two experts, Albert
Mayer and Daniel Thorner, on the approach to rural development in
4.06 India and analyses their implications. The Community Development
Project and the National Extension Service in India are modeled

5.08 on the Etawah Pilot Project initiated by Albert Mayer who regards
the village as a whole in a special sense as a unit of need.
7.18 Daniel Thorner, on the other hand, does not favor the project
approach to rural development. On the basis of an intensive study
of the Community Development Project in a U.P. Village, the author
broadly concurs with the point of view of Thorner and gives his
reasons. However, Thorner's plan for further redistribution of
land does not find favor with the author who feels that the incentive to greater agricultural efficiency thus created would be more
than offset by the decline in incentive due to increased
fragmentation.

82Q Rao, V.K.R.V., "Second Agricultural Labor Enquiry--Review and Suggestions," Econ. Weekly, 13(30), July 1961: 1217-1225.

1.021 The article summarizes the various views expressed at a
seminar conducted by the Institute of Economic Growth, Delhi, on
4.02 the second agricultural labor enquiry, 1956-57. The main points
of discussion were: (1) The change in the definition of agricul-
4.09 tural labor adopted by the second enquiry, which, in the opinion
of some, was responsible for the recorded decline in the number of
agricultural labor households as well as their income. (2) The
validity of the conclusions arrived at by excluding some of the
households included in the first enquiry. In the light of the
discussion and taking into consideration the consensus of opinion,
the author has put forward certain suggestions for improving the
absolute content and the degree of comparability of the forthcoming third enquiry. They are: (1) Only agricultural labor without land should form the subject of the enquiry. (2) Distinction
between casual and attached labor should be dropped. (3) The
planning, operation and analysis of the survey should be exclusively
in the hands of the Ministry of Labor. (4) A public discussion on
the methodology, etc. should precede the survey.

82R Chauhan, D.S., "Relationship Between Technology and Sociology in Economic Growth," Econ. Weekly, 11(51/52), December 1959: 1709-1716.

1.021 This is an examination of the conditions for accelerating the
rate of growth in the field of agriculture and the relationship
4.10 between technology and sociology in the process of growth. It is
argued that the existing level of technology and research may
4.16 enable the farmers to increase agricultural production considerably.
That such an increase has not been achieved is an indication that
4.17 the real problem lies in the social and organizational spheres.

The importance of the human element in development is emphasized and the example of China cited where the success of agricultural programs can be ascribed more to collective effort than to technological reasons. Economic development, it is argued, should be overall and the pivot of thinking should be man; experience in India shows that technology and not man has been the central point of thinking. To achieve higher yields, several cooperative farms (along with individual farming) in a village and several cooperative farming societies have been advocated. Efficient service cooperatives are also deemed necessary. More important, however, is the efficient working of institutions.

82S Neale, W.C., "Social Effects of Industrialization," Econ. Weekly, 8(32), August 1956: 951-954.

3.01 Industrialization is bound to have its attendant social effects. An industrial worker tends to be mechanistic and develops a matter
3.15 of fact attitude toward life processes. Naturally there is a tendency to disbelieve the forces of nature and luck. The stability of beliefs is shaken. On the other hand, an industrial worker loses control over processes of production. The technical requirements also affect class and family structures in the sense that anonymity is ensured and the in-group character of the family is affected. Caste lines also tend to be less sharp in a factory situation. Parental authority dwindles. The family becomes a much smaller unit than that in the rural set-up.

82T Trent, S., "Impact of Money Economy and Adult Suffrage on a Mysore Village," Econ. Weekly, 8(3,4,5), January 1956: 101-104.

1.021 The Indian experiment in democracy has been designed to significantly affect the social structure in villages. The article
4.07 based on a field study made near Mysore points out that the actual change brought about in villages is less startling than what is may
4.08 be imagined. The change is more of an evolutionary nature. Before the new experiment the political system in this village was entirely
7.21 hereditary. The village council was composed of elders. Different types of relations--social, economic, ritual and political--are closely interlinked and hence there is an elasticity in the system. Economic prosperity has not changed the internal credit system. The introduction of adult suffrage in 1952 was expected to be a direct assault on the heredity village council. Voting by a show of hand, however, meant in reality loss of freedom to vote, owing to the influence of the group to which one belonged. Hence, the hereditary office of the headman could not be dislodged. The new council was not recognized by the village elders. The unoffcial council rules in reality. Thus, political reforms cannot take root in the context of a stable social structure in a village.

83A Ozga, S.A., "The Propensity to Save, the Capital-Output Ratio, and the Equilibrium Rate of Growth," Economica, 31(124), 1964: 363-371.

3.01 The article gives a simple mathematical analysis of the
relation between the form and position of (a) Kaldor's technical
3.02 progress curve which shows the rate of growth of output per head
over time as a function of the rate of growth of capital per head
3.03 over time, and (b) a marginal productivity curve which shows the
marginal product of capital at a point of time as a function of
3.13 the capital-output ratio at that point of time. It is found that
in a one-commodity model in which constant returns obtain and capital and labor are the only factors of production the position of (a) is independent of the capital-output ratio only if the position of (b) is independent of technical progress.

This result is used to elucidate the conditions in which steady growth can take place. It is shown that capital and output may be growing at the same and constant rate if technical progress is neutral in the Harrodian sense. The rate of steady growth is then independent of the propensity to save. If technical progress is not neutral, some of the conditions of the model must give way—the marginal productivity condition, for instance, in Kaldor's model—to allow curve (b) to shift over time and yet leave the rate of growth of capital unchanged. But the position of curve (a) is then not independent of the capital-output ratio and the rate of steady growth may not be independent of the propensity to save.

Propositions

No propositions.

83B Asimakopulos, A., and J.C. Weldon, "The Classification of Technical Progress in Models of Economic Growth," Economica, 30(120), 1963: 372-386.

3.01 Classifications of technical progress now frequently fail
their purpose as a shorthand to summarize economic change. The
3.02 authors propose to classify progress by the directions of change
in the output-factor ratios, the comparison being made from
3.11 defined conditions of equilibrium under the old arrangements and
the new. The system includes the rules found in Harrod-Robinson models of growth, and is easily related to other schemes. The authors apply the system in an analysis of models of the Robinson type. Their principle finding is that the two-sector nature of these models is an unnecessary elaboration, and that their essential features can be satisfactorily represented in a single sector. Various paraphrases of a Robinson model are presented.

Propositions

No propositions; discussion of the application of models.

83C Bauer, Peter T., "The Study of Underdeveloped Economies," Economica, 30(120), 1963: 360-371.

3.01
3.02 The article, which is the published version of an inaugural lecture, discusses the study, relevance, and limitations of economics in the context of poor countries. It argues that economic analysis is widely relevant to the explanation of phenomena in poor countries, and to the assessment of many measures of policy. On the other hand, it is suggested that it cannot explain so readily the factors behind the economic progress, let alone forecast their occurrence, though it may eventually succeed better in the former task at any rate especially in collaboration with other disciplines. Examples are given of successful application of micro- and macro-economic theory with examples of their predictive value. The article suggests that the study of underdeveloped economies encounters certain special but familiar difficulties, but at the same time offers some unsuspected opportunities. Examples are given in support of these suggestions. It is then argued that economics is less useful in predicting long-term development, and reasons are given for doubting the usefulness either of formal growth models, or of the stages of growth approach in this context. The failure of these approaches in this context do not, however, preclude the possibility of specific, though tentative, generalizations about some of the major aspects or determinants of material progress. The limited significance of physical natural resources is noted. The importance and relevance of the conspicuous differences between individuals and groups in economic capacities and faculties are discussed at some length. The significance of external contacts and their effects on development is also examined. The question of the factors behind the emergence, persistence or disappearance of differences in economic capacities is reviewed. The possibility and value of inter-disciplinary cooperation is briefly discussed, with specific examples of problems which might be usefully examined on an inter-disciplinary basss.

Propositions

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5.18 (1) Economic growth is not strictly a function of physical capital. In underdeveloped economies the probability of economic growth increases as institution and attitudes change and become modern. (P. 364.)

Evidence: Unsubstantiated assertion.

5.123 (2) The probability of changed attitudes and behavior increases with increasing contacts with more dynamic cultures. (P.368.)

5.14

83D Bergstrom, A.R., "A Model of Technical Progress, the Production Function and Cyclical Growth," Economica, 29(116), 1962:357-370.

3.01 A form of production function is derived from basic technological assumptions that are consistent with the following facts:
3.02 (1) In the short run the form of capital cannot be changed without limit as factor proportions vary. (2) The stock of capital
3.13 of an economy is seldom, if ever, used to full capacity.

The production function is not exact, but holds approximately, in the neighborhood of the steady growth path of a model. It can be used, therefore, for the purpose of analyzing the behavior of a model in the neighborhood of its steady growth path.

The new form of production function is used in a model that determines the paths of output, employment, consumption, capital formation, the rate of interest, the wage-rate and the price level. This model provides a synthesis of real and monetary quantities and of cycles and growth in a single system. The steady state solution is obtained and yields the following conclusions:

(1) the steady state growth rates of output and the stock of capital are equal to the rate of technological progress;

(2) in the steady state the proportional rate of increase in the price level is equal to the proportional rate of increase in the volume of money minus the rate of technological progress;

(3) the steady state level of employment is an increasing function of the proportional rate of increase in the volume of money;

(4) the steady state rate of interest is lower the greater is the propensity to save and the greater is the full capacity output-capital ratio.

The stability of the system is analyzed, and it is concluded that there are realistic sets of values of the parameters in both the stable and unstable regions of the parameter space.

Propositions

No propositions; application of a model.

83E Ozga, S.A., "Capital Resources, Equilibrium and Growth," Economica, 29(116), 1962: 385-394.

3.01 The problem with which the article is concerned is whether
in equilibrium the structure of capital resources is optimal in
3.02 the sense that no increase in output could be obtained if some of
the capital goods out of which these resources consist was re-
3.03 placed by others which, within the limits of the same total quan-
tity, are also available.

The analysis is based on a model in which no net investment takes place, and in which the same production function applies to all capital goods and all consumer goods. The rates of transformation of all goods one for another as products are thus equal to unity. It is then shown that if the structure of capital resources is to be optimal, the marginal rates of substitution of different types of capital goods one for another as factors of production must also be equal to unity. The firms, however, adjust the quantities of the factors used to what they cost. And thus, owing to a higher rate of interest on long-term loans than on short-term loans, is always more for more durable goods than for less durable goods. Capital goods of different durability are, therefore, not used in proportions in which their rates of substitution as factors of production are equal to unity. And the total amount of goods produced is not at a maximum.

At the end of the article the assumption of a static economy is discarded, and it is shown that if banks are prepared to transform (by borrowing short and lending long) the required amount of short-term funds into long-term funds, the structure of capital may so adjust itself to the rate of growth that the conditions of both the marginal productivity theory and of Mr. Kaldor's "Keynesian" theory of distribution remain satisfied.

Propositions

No propositions; application of model.

83F Zabel, Edward, "A Multi-Sectoral Study of Economic Growth," Economica, 29(115), 1962: 284-299.

1.06 In this review article an evaluation is attempted of A Multi-
Sectoral Study of Economic Growth by Leif Johansen, published by
3.01 the North-Holland Publishing Company. The major objective of the
Johansen study is to develop a model to explain long-run growth
3.02 of the sectors of an economy and to estimate the parameters of
the model for a particular economy. To focus attention on the
sectors, the growth of the economy as a whole is assumed to be
determined primarily by exogenous variables. On the empirical

side, Johansen uses Norwegian data to estimate parameters of the model and, from estimates of rates of change of exogenous variables, computes the relative rates of change of the sectors of the Norwegian economy with respect to the endogenous variables: labor employed, capital employed, prices, and output.

It is argued in the article that the idea of the study constitutes a notable contribution to applied economics while the specific execution of the study is open to some question. On the one hand, the model seems inappropriate in important respects. In particular, the type of economic system which is described by the model seems inadequate as an approximation of a free enterprise economy, which is the focus of the study. On the other hand, the model leads to some peculiar empirical results, which are discussed in some detail in the article.

In the final sections of the article a revised model is suggested which appears to be an improved approximation of a free enterprise economy and which shows promise of correcting the anomalous empirical results of the original model. Other ways in which the model may be extended are discussed briefly.

Propositions

No propositions; development and application of a model.

84A Harper, E. B., "Cultural Factors in Food Consumption: An Example from India," Econ. Bot., 15(4), October-December 1961: 289-295.

5.112 Though scienfific research is making progress toward solving man's present food shortages, the problem of inducing people to
5.14 eat food to which they are not accustomed remains unsolved. The author suggests research approaches to the question of cultural eating habits: (1) to study the socialization process of the child in order to determine why he rejects or accepts certain foods from the large array which are offered him; (2) to examine the cultural factors which define some nutritions substances as edible, while other equally nutritious foods are rejected. These approaches ask questions about emotions, values, conceptinns of what constitutes prestige, and about social structure.

85A Artle, Roland, "External Trade, Industrial Structure, Employment Mix, and the Distribution of Incomes: A Simple Model of Planning and Growth," Ekonomisk Tidskrift, 67 (1), 1965: 1-23.

3.01 The paper states the conceptual format of a model which has
been implemented with data in a study of the island of Oahu, Hawaii.
3.02 The model satisfies simultaneously a set of different goals, formu-
lated as aspiration levels. One of these goals is to change the
3.16 present distribution of incomes--as between low-income, middle-in-
come, and high-income families--in a desired direction and at
desired rates of change. The other goals concern the combined
budgets of state and local government, Oahu's external payments
relations, and the rate of growth of population on Oahu (which contains the city of Honolulu).

The paper also introduces a new method of comprehending Leontief-type input-output relations and their changes over time.

Propositions

No Propositions; Application of a model in Hawaii.

85B Walden, L. J., "Long Term Manpower Problems II: Research, Education and Economic Development," Ekonomisk Tidskrift, 66 (2), 1964: 113-160.

3.01 In this paper the discussion on the education of manpower (con-
tinued from Ekonomisk Tidskrift, 1963:4) is extended to concern
3.02 research and technical progress. It is shown that there is a con-
siderable discrepancy between the applied and the theoretical ap-
6.16 proach to technical progress. In the former the emphasis is laid
upon scientific and technical personnel, thereby assuming that some labor has more knowledge than the other. In the latter approach, labor is dealt with as a homogenous factor of production and interest has largely been focused on the implication of neutrality. The difference between knowledge of a new technique and its application is emphasized in the article.

Two models to analyse technical progress are carried out based on the following assumptions: Research increased knowledge and thereby productivity of manpower. No physical capital. Costs of dispersion of new technique are negligible. There are two kinds of manpower, highly educated and relatively low educated, and they use different techniques in production. There are three sectors, research, education and industry.

It is then shown that, the greater the supply of one kind of manpower, the more profitable it is to research to increase the productivity of this kind of manpower. In the second model positive net education in each period is assumed, and the following four stages of development are analysed. (1) All highly educated manpower employed in research and education, and all research in favor of relatively low educated manpower. (2) Some highly educated manpower employed in industry, still all research in favor of relatively low educated manpower. During stages (1) and (2) relative wages of highly educated manpower will fall. (3) The number of highly educated manpower employed in industry is sufficiently great to make it profitable to research to increase its productivity. The rate of growth in productivity of highly educated manpower will continuously increase and in the end surpass that of relatively low educated manpower. (4) Research in favor of relatively low educated manpower ceases and all research turns in favor of highly educated manpower. A Dual Economy may occur, where highly educated manpower stand for and receives all the increase in production, while the productivity of relatively low educated manpower remains constant.

Propositions

No Propositions; Model analysis.

85C Brems, Hans, "Trade, Growth, and the Exchange Rate," Ekonomisk Tidskrift, 65 (3), 1963: 99-108.

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In multi-country models, there is at least one price which cannot in the long run be ignored, i.e., the exchange rate. Yet almost all growth models ignore it and with it the substitution between import and consumption of the country's own products. To be true, once admitted as a variable, the exchange rate threatens to destroy the linearity of the system. One purpose of this paper is to admit it into a two-country Harrod-Domar model just the same. Another purpose is to derive explicitly the aggregate consumption and import functions of such a model from well-specified individual utility and spending functions.

As a result, the equilibrium proportionate rate of growth of each country's output, but not that of its real income, is found to depend upon that country's own parameters only. In this sense, the variable exchange rate makes the countries less dependent upon each other.

The core of the paper is the determination of the growth path of the exchange rate defined as a number of monetary units of Country 1 per monetary unit of Country 2. Anything such as an increase of the capital coefficient or of the propensity to spend of Country 1 which will reduce the growth rate of that country's output, is found to reduce the growth rate of the exchange rate. Anything such as an increase of the capital coefficient or of the propensity to spend of Country 2 which will reduce the growth rate of that country's output, will raise the growth rate of the exchange rate.

Finally, an increase in the rate of growth of prices in Country 1 will raise the growth rate of the exchange rate, while conversely an increase in the rate of prices in Country 2 would reduce it.

Propositions

No Propositions; Model analysis.

86A Keller, F. L., "Institutional Barriers to Economic Development -- Some Examples from Bolivia," Econ. Geog., 31(7-8), October 1955: 351-363.

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Perhaps in no other Latin American country does the institutional background play such an important role in delaying utilization of relatively abundant natural resourcea as it does in the land-locked central Andean Republic of Bolivia. Contemporary attitudes toward the utilization of agricultural land have resulted from a super-imposition of European manorial tenures on the indigenous communal patterns. The cross-purposes which have evolved in agrarian policy are serving to stultify productivity and hamper to a significant degree concerted efforts by foreign technicians to increase agricultural surpluses through technical innovation. An imperfect blending of diverse cultures has produced an institutional dichotomy which may delay for some time the formation of the national cohesion requisite for integrated internal development. Acute inflation, real estate speculation, a misdirected foreign exchange system, and capital flight have served to divert or absorb accumulating funds, the reinvestment of which are essential for continued economic growth. An inadequate tax system, rather than permitting faster accumulation of capital resources by private interests, serves only to reduce national revenue below the level necessary for successful implementation of government sponsored developmental programs. Due to international political considerations, policymakers generally have refrained from attempting to overhaul the whole technique of government, despite widespread recognition that institutional problems are creating an ever-widening hiatus between industrial potential and actual production.

87A Mukerji, B., "Administrative Problems of Democratic Decentralization," EROPA Rev., 2(2), December 1963: 91-112.

1.021 5.08 7.21 This is a comprehensive study of some of the very difficult problems which face a country, like India, that has until the very recent past been governed by a central organization. Now the people are expected to participate in local administration, with government help only where it is absolutely necessary. Community development and successful local government are closely related to the growth of democracy. The author discusses in detail ways and means to make this long-term aim a practical possibility.

87B Nguyen-Manh-Tu, "The Developing and Training of Local Leaders For Co-operatives in Viet Nam," EROPA Rev., 2(2), December 1962: 131-138.

1.231 4.17 7.02 Finding leaders and training them are the foundations of cooperative success and are most important in maintaining the cooperative drive. Leadership varies from situation to situation and depends primarily on the nature and function of the group. The author discusses the selection and training of leaders of whom high qualities of enthusiasm, enterprise and ability are demanded in order to fulfil the many and various tasks awaiting them.

87C Khanh, Quang, "Government Admnnintration of Rural Development," EROPA Rev., 1(2), June 1961: 41-49.

7.03 7.21 7.232 This topic was part of the agenda discussed by the First General Assembly EROPA in December 1960. Governmental assistance for rural development has been traditional in most of the countries, but recently it has been given top priority. The rural population is finally receiving benefits in many fields of rural development. There is a wide variety of administrative schemes in different countries but there is consensus on the adoption of the following measures for more effective machinery of rural development: Coordination between activities of central government and local units and intensive training of local officials for rural development programs. The main problem will be the inculcation of civic consciousness for public affairs among rural populations and a broader delegation of authority and responsibility by the central government to the local units.

87D Yao, C. C., "Local Self-Government in South-East Asia," EROPA Rev., 1(2), June 1961: 51-103.

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In this exhaustive survey the main points generally agreed were: The formation of local government is generally provided by national laws and the delineation of powers is in most countries laid down in their constitution. It is found that the system of local autonomy strengthens democracy. It is important that local machinery in the promotion of social welfare should be run with modern techniques. The countries are advised to develop very positive programs to stimulate the interest of the yet small number of competent persons to run local posts and of the voters to elect the best possible men. A minimum of supervision by the national over the local government is recommended. The author concludes that local self-government is only one of the profound changes now taking place in Asia. Despite personal preferences and success or failure of local autonomy, a governmett must be pliable with reference to individual circumstances.

88A Macarthur, J. D., "The Development of Research into the Production Economics of African Peasant Farms in Kenya," East African Econ. Rev., 9(2), December 1962: 95-107.

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89A Cornell, John B., " Ainu Assimilation and Cultural Extinction: Acculturation policy in Hokkaido, Ethnol., 3(3), July 1964: 287-304.

1.025 In continuous and often hostile contact with the Japanese frontier for some two millenia, the Ainu in this century have

5.021 become culturally depleted and almost assimilated socially. This is ascribed to growing national strategic interests in the island

5.14 occasioned by: (1) the Russian threat on the north; and (2) imperative economic development. The feudal policy of stabilized pluralism, reserving most of the island as a native enclave, yielded to paternalistic forced Japanization in the last century; upon abandonment of the aboriginal system of hunting and fishing territories, egregious economic collapse threatened, forcing the government to retreat from a policy of "termination" to modified "protectionism." Special attention is given to the modern system of controlled land allotments, difficulties in imposing Japanese agrarianism on the migratory aborigines, resultant disorganization of Ainu community life, and alienation of native land rights to the postwar Land Reform. Major policy errors are attributed to consistent Japanese disregard of the discreteness of Ainu ecology and economic orientations.

Propositions

No propositions

89B Gould, H.A.,"A Jajmani System of North India; Its Structure, Magnitude, and Meaning," Ethnol., 3(1), 1964: 12-41.

1.021 The traditional economic interaction, known as the "jajmani" system was studied in a rural north Indian area. The data

4.07 gathered pinpoint three issues: (1) the types of relationships and reimbursements which the system actually involves; (2) the

5.062 kind of ecological unit that is appropriate for study of economic interaction in rural India; and (3) the relative magnitude of traditional economic interaction in India. The village proved to be an arbitrary and meaningless unit for determining of networks of client-patron relationships. Networks of service relationships largely ignored political boundaries of villages, and formed in relationship to the availability of clients on the one hand, and specialists on the other. The amount of grain circulated by a jajmani system is only a small fraction of the gross agricultural production of the households making up the network; thus any analysis of the system which emphasizes its strictly economic meanings, or sees it as a key structural component of a "feudal" order, is unwarranted. The Jajmans are not a "class," sociologically speaking, but a religio-economic category representing a status which any orthodox rural Hindu, regardless of caste, seeks to achieve according to his means. This is confirmed by the occurrence of persons of this status in every caste in the sample.

Propositions

1.021 (1) The probability that a traditional economic relationship
will be retained is increased if it is essential to the
4.07 maintenance of patterns of social status and social interaction. (P. 31.)
5.062 Evidence: Unsubstantiated.

89C Hostetler, John A., "Persistance and Change in Amish Society," Ethnol., 3(2), April 1964: 185-198.

1.06 An examination of Amish society. Data are derived from depth
interviews, original documents, and participant observation. The
5.064 "charter" elements of Amish society are: (1) separation from
the world—the Amish view of reality manifested in societal endo-
5.16 gamy, prohibition of business contacts with outsiders, and maintenance of "intimate human associations within the ceremonial community;" (2) biblical tradition; (3) "Rules of Order" (Ordnung) —an unwritten body of sentiments and taboos; (4) "Shunning" (Meidung)—a disciplinary measure "applied after the offender has been formally excommunicated from the fellowship by vote of the assembly;" and (5) agrarianism—case studies are presented in which the moral stricture of Amish society is defied through covert pursual of education, community-tolerated occupations, indulgence in anti-social acts, and tolerated rowdyism. Outsiders are in contact with the Amish and generally supply commodities and services disapproved of by Amish society. It is also observed that the "rate of suicide among the Amish may be higher than that of the rural United States population in general." It is concluded that "Amish communities, like other separatist communities, find themselves in a problematic situation. Amish society is faced with the problem of community self-realization and personal fulfillment for each new generation of members born into it....The constant striving to achieve the goals of the charter has given rise to distinctive patterns of deviancy and stress."

Propositions

1.06 (1) The probability of social and cultural change is greater in
a "marginal" traditional environment (i.e., one which is in
5.124 contact with other values) than in "solid" communities which
are isolated from external contacts. (P. 188.)
Evidence: Generalization from Amish experience.

89D Ember, Melvin, "The Relationship Between Economic and Political Development in Nonindustrialized Societies," Ethnol., 2(2), April 1963: 228-248.

3.02 The idea that a close relationship exists between economic
and political development in nonindustrialized societies has long
7.01 been the subject of argument in ahthropology. A cross-cultural
study was designed to provide some of the objective evidence
7.11 necessary to resolve this argument. To assess the degree of economic development (i.e., per capita output), two indicators were used: upper limit of community size in the society, and relative importance of agriculture in primary subsistence production. Degree of political development (i.e., the extent of governmental regulation) was assessed regarding the degree to which political authority was differentiated in the society and the level of political integration in the society (the population of the largest territorial group in whose behalf one or more government activities were initiated). From G. Murdock's "World Ethnographic Sample," 24 cases were selected with the aid of a table of random numbers. To insure the comparability of the sampling units, each case was required to be a continuously distributed population whose members, at the time described spoke a common language (or lingua franca) which was different from the dominant languages of any neighboring societies. Each pair of indicators was found to be significantly related providing a further check on their validity. The phi coefficient, for upper limit of community size and relative importance of agriculture, was .58 ($p=.008$, one tail). The rank-order coefficient for differentiation of political authority and level of political integration was .84 ($p<.001$, one tail). Three of the four possible cross-correlations between the indicators show that economic and policital development are indeed closely related in nonindustrialized societies. For community size and political authority, the rank-order coefficient was .80 ($p<.001$, one tail). The phi coefficients for the importance of agriculture and the two indicators of political development were both .60 ($p=.005$, one tail). Correlations involving some of the ratings in the "World Ethnographic Sample" provide further evidence of the reliability of the results. Finally, a plot of the scores on upper limit of community size and differentiation of political authority suggests that political development is a positively accelerated function of economic development. A theoretical interpretatinn concludes that economic development is a necessary but not sufficient condition for political development.

Propositions

3.02 (1) Economic development is a necessary but not a sufficient
condition of political development (considered as political
7.01 authority and political integration). Economic development
is required to produce the excess of goods beyond subsistence
7.11 required to support a distribution structure. (Pp. 245-246.)

Evidence: Correlational analysis of a sample of contemporary and historical cultures (N=24) established the relationship between the two factors. That economic development necessarily precedes political development is an unsubstantiated inference.

90A Mandal, G. C., "Technological Change in Agriculture and Economic Growth," Econ. Rev., 13(14-16), January 1962: 157-163.

1.021 The article makes out a case for partial mechanization of
agricultural operations to solve the paradoxical situation obtain-
4.09 ing in India, namely, that the maximum of three acres of land,
which a farmer-worker can cultivate with the assistance of his
4.10 family members in the present state of technology, is not suffi-
cient to enable him to maintain himself and his family at a reasonable standard of living. Also it in not possible under such a situation to withdraw a unit of labor from farming without a substantial reduction in output, because, though the addition to a product likely to be brought about by an addition of one more unit of labor may be insignificant, the reverse of it is not true. Results of a personal investigation, as well as an analysis of some published data, have been cited in support of the contention.

90B "Patna Congress 1962," Econ. Rev., 13(14-16), January 1962: 43.

1.021 This is a special number brought out on the occasion of the
67th session of the Indian National Congress held at Patna. By
4.03 means of several articles on important aspects of the Indian eco-
nomy like population, agriculture, money and banking, foreign
4.06 trade, national income, etc., the journal attempts to describe the
country's current economic scene. Of interest to the agricultural
4.11 economist are the following articles contained in the issue:

7.21 Panchayati Raj must take the factory to the village; increasing production in Indian agriculture — a farm level view; prospects for Indian agriculture; the seasonal variation of labor consumption in farming, administrative revolution under Panchayati Raj; the transformation of subsistence economy into a money economy — some implications for economic development; technological change in agriculture and economic growth; and understanding community development.

91A Gebrewold, Mulugeta, "Attitudes of the African Farmer to Modern Agricultural Methods," Empire Cotton Growing Review, 33, April 1956: 137-140.

1.01 A young Ethiopian farmer and agricultural student tells why
Africans are often reluctant to adopt the recommendations of
3.15 foreigners for improving their agricultural methods. These traditional methods have been evolved and adapted over the course of
4.10 many generations, and, furthermore, the new methods recommended by
Europeans have not always proved successful. Such failures dis-
4.11 credit agricultural technicians generally, and the new peasant
farmer becomes suspicious of all new ideas. The writer stresses
the basic importance of education, particularly in the form of
scholarships in agricultural studies for young Africans.

91B Gillman, H., "Trends in Nyasaland Agriculture," Empire Cotton Growing Review, 33, January 1956: 6-11.

1.024 This article notes recent developments in plantatinn and
peasant agriculture. It describes many simple improvement measures
3.15 introduced among African peasants, as well as the master farmer
scheme, designed to assist outstanding African farmers and
4.09 encourage imitation of their methods.

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92A Mujumdar, N. A., "Agriculture in India's Economic Development," Farm Econ., 10(1), 1962: 29-39.

1.021 4.03 4.10 5.07

The main purpose of this article is to substantiate the following two points: (1) the technical base does exist in the agricultural sector for ensuring a growth rate at least commensurate with the requirements of the growing population; (2) this substantial potentiality for raising farm output and productivity could be exploited by techniques that rely mainly on the use of resources that have low opportunity cost. The low levels of productivity which now characterize the use of resources currently available in agriculture are largely due to the lack of certain complementary inputs of a technical, educational, and institutional nature. It, therefore, seems possible that agricultural productivity could be increased by introducing simple technological innovations within the framework of existing labor-intensive methods.

93A Schickele, R., "The Role of Farm Management in Economic Development Planning," Farm. Manage. Notes Asia and the Far East, 1(1), January 1965: 4-8.

1.02 4.06 4.15

The paper suggests a number of means by which farm management research can be updated to meet the needs of economic development. They are: (1) shift from pure description to problem-solving through farm planning and budgeting; (2) determine desirable and feasible improvements in environmental conditions to help farmers overcome production obstacles; (3) establish methods of farm development planning, taking into account environmental improvement, and aggregating input and output estimates from farm plans and budgets for typical farms in major farming systems to area, regional, and national totals; (4) break down national production targets to regional and local levels, according to their respective production potentials for various crop and livestock enterprises; (5) close the gap between national production targets and local farm development plans by harmonizing desirable national targets and feasible local production performances; (6) find out what specific incentives are needed to render farmers able and willing to adopt the required new farming practices and systems; and (7) promote trials and demonstrations of farm development planning and budgeting on farms in well-located pilot areas.

94A "Action in Favor of Economic Development in Agriculture of Less Developed Countries," FATIS Rev., 10(1), 1963: 16-20.

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94B Heady, E. O., "Agricultural Adjustment and Economic Development," FATIS Rev., 10(4), 1963: 123-127.

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94C "Stimulating the Economic Development of Agriculture in Less Developed Countries," FATIS Rev., 9(3-4), 1962: 67-72.

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94D Gomez Ayau, E., "Agricultural Development in Relation to Economic Development," FATIS Rev., 8(3), 1961: 62-65.

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94E Aris, D., "The Agricultural Advisory Service in Turkey; A Review of Progress," FATIS Rev., 6(5), 1959: 131-133.

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95A Azikiwe, N., "Essentials for Nigerian Survival," For. Aff., 43(3), April 1965: 447-461.

1.012 Representation in the Nigerian House of Representatives is uneven, as in the North only men vote, in the South both men and
7.04 women. If the Federation is there to stay, the North should enfranchise its female population. The Upper House, the Senate,
7.05 needs reforming and vesting with concurrent jurisdiction with the House of Representatives, and Senators should stand for election,
7.09 to avoid a decline in the functions of Parliament. The Nigerian judiciary is the bulwark of the liberty of its citizens and the best
7.19 hope for survival as a democracy. But the federal system suffers from great strain, due to the tri-corporal nature of its legal and judicial systems. Extensive reforms are overdue and the judicial system should be unified to enable all courts to dispense justice on a uniform basis. The Constitution must be revised so that all Nigerians enjoy all rights and fulfill all obligations of citizenship anywhere in Nigeria. To become a real union, Nigeria should be divided so that no one region could dominate the rest, irrespective of tribalism which has at the moment replaced nationalism. The federal system must be diversified, and there should be an elected executive head of state as distinct from a constitutional one, working parallel with a power-loaded head of government. The central problem of federalism in Nigeria is how to coexist in harmony.

95B Issawi, C., "The Arab World's Heavy Legacy," For. Aff., 43(3), April 1965: 501-512.

7.11 The Arab world at present turns against the alien Western civilization, but in addition some parts of it turn against others.
7.16 The ideological changes taking place today in the Arab countries reflect deep structural changes in their society. New bases of integration are needed. The almost static Arab society was suddenly thrown into the mainstream of history at the end of the eighteenth century. It was the presence of the West that caused the peculiar development of the Arab world; it accelerated its transformation from a subsistence to a market economy, and the dissolution of its communal and organizational ties; it also inhibited the growth of an Arab bourgeoisie, but produced landless peasants and an under-employed urban proletariat. The crucial difference to Western Europe lies in the lack of industrialization in Arab countries with consequential delay in the development of the bourgeoisie. The entrepreneurial middle class (as distinct from the salaried one) consisted mainly of minority groups while the Muslim one, when it developed, came too late and was too weak to get control of their societies. Meanwhile the discovery of the West produced great

cultural and political changes: new ideas corroded Arab society and political strife added to social discontent, produced radical ideologies. Today an attempt is made to reconstruct society on the two bases of nationalism and socialism.

95C Mahdavy, H., "The Coming Crisis in Iran," For. Aff., 44(1), October 1965: 134-146.

1.235 Land reform, by virtue of the changes, dislocations, hopes and
fears that it causes in almost every sector of society, may create
4.14 such problems, release such energies, and generate such forces as
to set in motion movements more powerful than were anticipated by
7.11 its initiators. In Iran, the social and political results of the
program are causing basic structural changes in Iranian society.
7.12 For example, the forces lending support for the regime have changed.
(e.g., the Shah's traditional allies, the landlords, have been
alienated); the lingering economic crisis tends to lead to an
increase in urban unemployment; the future politicalization of the
peasantry seems inevitable. The author sees hope for a peaceful
political solution remote; rather opposition forces seem to be
moving toward accepting violence as the only way to bring about a
solution to Iran's wills.

95D Sternberg, H. O'R., "Brazil: Complex Giant," For. Aff., 43(2), January 1965: 297-311.

1.032 Brazil's unity in the light of her cultural, ethnic and
physical diversity is surprising. Today Brazil is the foremost
3.09 country of Latin language and Latin culture with a very high propor-
tion of illiteracy. The mass movement of people from the rural
3.12 areas to the cities has profound social, economic and political
implications. There is a crying need for a more equitable distri-
4.14 bution of land and the establishment of a rural middle class. In
terms of minerals and power resources Brazil is among the four or
five best endowed countries in the world. Brazil's new leadership
seems to have understood that the archaic structure inherited from
colonial times must be replaced without delay, so that resources
may become available to the greatest number of people in all regions
of the half-continent.

95E Dart, F. E., "The Rub of Cultures," For. Aff., 41(2), January 1963: 360-371.

1.02 Asia today is in the midst of a tremendous revolution which
demands independence and increased living standards in a great hurry.

5.14 How can America be a constructive force in it? Western technology is what is wanted most: industry and education are expected to transform life, but they threaten also the cultural foundations of the community, its religion and basic philosophies. Some changes came too quickly even for superficial accommodation: the developing nations need to have their own scientific revolutions. Technology itself is not science; science is a unique development limited almost entirely to the Western world. A true scientific revolution would affect profoundly the cultures of the underdeveloped nations and bring about major changes which should be considered beforehand. Good planning by the West is essential. Wise and effective assistance to nations trying to develop their own scientific revolutions may be no less important than automation or space research.

95F Furtado, C., "Brazil: What Kind of Revolution?," For. Aff., 41(3), April 1963: 526-535.

1.032 Brazil is on the way towards a transformation in its economic and social structure. A fundamental problem, not only facing Brazil,
5.11 is to develop techniques which make rapid social transformations possible while retaining the pattern of an open society. Brazil
5.12 is an open society to the industrial workers, but not to the peasants; that is why the peasants are more susceptible to revolu-
7.11 tionary techniques of the Marxist-Leninist type — and they form a rigid society. This produces a duality within the Brazilian revolutionary process. To avoid a dictatorial regime, Brazil must prevent retrogression in her social and political systems and create conditions for effective change in the country's archaic agrarian structure. A radical change of government administration, of the fiscal system and of the banking structure is necessary. Public opinion must be regarded to produce programs for the renewal of popular representation.

95G Davies, H. O., "The New African Profile," For. Aff., 40(2), January 1962: 293-302.

1.01 The revolution of African independence is today a fact. The most fundamental problem facing the new states is to fit the people
7.11 to the alien constitutions they have adopted. The system of government by party politics is alien to Africa, the evil lies probably
7.12 in the method of choosing representatives. It leads to bribery, corruption and violence. African parliamentarians do not understand
7.16 the function of the opposition. The pattern of constitution evolving in Africa today is democracy with strong leadership, with the stress on the leader, not the people.

95H Mead, Margaret, "The Underdeveloped and the Overdeveloped," For. Aff., October 1962: 3-14.

5.01 Use of the term "underdeveloped" implies that the most significant dimension of measurement is standard of living. "Underdevelopment" places a country on a scale which implies that industrial development can, should, and will take place. The term "poor," however, is not used to place a country on a continuum of technical change. Rather, it describes its relative consumption position, compared to other countries. The concept changes when the two ideas are combined, and emphasis is laid on the relative presence or absence of technical productive capacity. The assumption that technological development is possible for all means the majority of people can no longer be allowed to live in poverty. Poverty is now the consequence of being underdevelpped. On the one hand, the new conception of technological development is geared to 20th century understanding of relationships between technology, productivity, and the determination and satisfaction of minimal human needs. On the other hand, our conception of how to meet these needs is geared to an obsolescent conception of what nation states can accomplish. Help in bringing their living standard up to the minimum can be introduced by: (1) exporting of natural resources, (2) migration, (3) immigration or resettlement, (4) regional planning, or world-wide organization. Though there is a strong need for transnational efforts, most efforts for helping people are intergovernmental. New governments exploit poverty by appealing to the world's conscience. There is a need for nationhood within which every people may find dignity and take responsibility in certain ways for their fellow citizens, and in other ways for all other peoples. Use of the term "overdeveloped" for a nation may mean overconsumption,. or the indices of social disorganization (crime, suicide, alcoholism, etc.), in those industrial countries with most advanced political democracy and welfare state organization. The term raises the question of whether technological development, assumed to be a good thing, should be pursued so singlemindedly. These prices are paid because people fail to recognize their own economic potential. Singlescale development will result in a hierarchy of citizenship as well as of nations. Nations are, and should be, different from each other. Units of economic development should meet technical, not national, criteria. A series of overlapping structures must be arranged, which are so acephalous that it will be as difficult for any member to destroy them as it will be unprofitable for any member to withdraw.

95I Young, T. C., "Iran in Continuing Crisis," For. Aff., 40(2), January 1962: 275-292.

1.235 Iran is at a fairly advanced stage in the social revolution which engages the non-Western world at present. Economically she is

5.05 one of the most favored countries of Asia; yet difficulties have
recently appeared on the economic front, due to waste of material
7.02 and human resources. Iran's present danger is that, after having
achieved marked growth, she is unable to sustain it, and that the
Shah and his ministers are unable or unwilling to realize that political decisions are essential to maintain economic growth. The
heart of Iran's problem is the need for revolutionary and responsible
leadership, for transition from traditional paternalism to modern
industrialism. The deep gulf between the National Front and the
Shah is most unfortunate as the majority of the politically concerned
are backers of the Front. In addition, the conservative elite also
mistrusts the Shah, so that a political triangle results. There is
a grave lack of experienced younger statesmen due to the dictatorship
of two Shahs.

95J Efren, N., "Turkey. Problems, Policies, Parties," For. Aff., 49(1),
October 1961: 95-104.

1.233 The Turkish Republic suffered the first crisis of its existence
in May 1960, and is now reverting to normal democratic processes.
3.13 Yet the crisis is not over. There is no sense of national purpose.
The new Constitution and the political parties reflect the country's
7.11 confusion. It lacks purposeful political leadership. The new
Constitution and elections will not solve all problems. Turkey's
7.12 main difficulties are economic; her great need is increased production. Yet beneath the surface healthy forces are operating and the
Second Republic has a fair chance of achieving balanced progress.

95K Galbraith, J. K., "A Positive Approach to Economic Aid," For. Aff.,
39(3), April 1961: 444-457

3.17 The great mistake in the past in the American system of foreign
aid has been the assumption that the only thing needed to help
underdeveloped countries was substantial measure of social justice,
a reliable apparatus of government and administration, and a clear
view of what development involves. Economic aid alone will not do
the trick. A National Development Institute should be established
to study the problems. Each country accepting aid should establish
Planning and Development Authorities, a sort of Development Ministry,
staffed by Americans, until the nationals of the country concerned
were trained. Countries not willing to join this plan would not be
refused access to other forms of aid. In any case, countries like
India, Pakistan or Mexico were not to be included in the positive
development plan.

95L Huxley, E., "The Next-to-Last Act in Africa," For. Aff., 39(4), July 1961: 655-669.

1.01 The path to independence in West Africa has run smoothly and
has reached its goal. In the East and Center, in the "multi-racial
7.11 countries", things have gone less well. Though Tanganyika and Kenya
have much in common, their way to independence is very different,
due to the much smaller number of White settlers in Tanganyika and
to the accident of leadership. No leader of Nyerere's stature has
emerged in Kenya, only Kenyatta who stands between Kenya and its
freedom -- at least in nationalist eyes. Uncertainty also prevails
in Rhodesia and Nyasaland. The Monckton Report showed that the
Federation had not brought the expected economic advantages and that
African opinion had become steadily more anti-federation, identifying it with White domination. Its survival till now is due to Sir
Roy Welensky. Yet it needs more than him to stem Black racialism.
Today's main problem in independent Africa is tribalism. Western
democracy cannot work there. Nigeria and Ghana have found different
ways of overcoming it. Tribalism is likely to lead either to
authoritarian rule or separatism. The Pan-African ideal has not
removed tribalism and it certainly has no time for the multi-racial
approach. The cold war in Africa has started; yet little preparation
to meet it has yet been made by the West.

95M Moraes, F., "Succession and Division in India," For. Aff., 39(4), July 1961: 634-641.

1.021 India is the largest democracy in the world, yet democracy still
has to take firm roots in people and rulers. The paradox of India
7.11 and Nehru is that, while internationally his influence is great,
his domestic prestige is at an ebb. His foreign policy has failed
7.15 in China and Pakistan, and he is on the defensive on the domestic
front. Internal wrangles within the Congress Party have demoralized
1.12 the country. The fight for Nehru's succession is in full swing and
the question of what will happen after his death remains unanswered.
His refusal to face the issue shows that he has found no one suitable. After his death the Congress Party is likely to split, which
might be beneficial if it led to a two-party system, though divisive
tendencies will assert themselves more actively.

95N Wagner, E. W., "Failure in Korea," For. Aff., 40(1), Ocoober 1961: 128-135.

1.236 South Korea today has an openly authorian regime, and Communism
may become an increasingly attractive alternatuve to the impoverished and police-ridden inhabitants. This United States failure
7.02

7.11 is due to a number of factors: a policy of drift, failure to foster a new social order, to come to understand the land and its people. Prospects are bleak, the economic problem the most glaring, even though the United States economic aid program has had some real achievements, marred only by faulty planning and waste, and not to be compared with North Korean economic growth. The new leadership seems as unable as the old to improve living conditions and to strengthen the country's anti-Communist posture. Political power has only shifted from one segment of the ruling elite to another. The United States has the task of bringing about a material betterment in the Korean way of life as the only way to compete with Communism in this critical underdeveloped area.

950 West, F. J., "The New Guinea Question. An Australian View," For. Aff., 39(3), April 1961: 504-511.

1.051 The island is composed of three territories, each with a different status in international law. The Australian Government
7.11 is in favor of independence or self-government for New Guinea. The problem is timing. From the economic standpoint the country is not ready -- but political developement is quite as important, and need not follow the economic development. A new elite policy extended to economic development as well as to education is essential for early independence. Its exact status would have to be defined; it could remain in the Australian Commonwealth, federate with other Melanesian territories, or become independent. Each solution raises serious problems.

95P Young, K. T.,Jr., "New Politics in New States," For. Aff., 39(3), April 1961: 494-503.

7.01 The 60 or so newly independent states face many new political
challenges and dilemmas, though they cannot break wholly away from
7.02 politics derived fron national institutions. Their problems are
environmental, operational and conceptual. The new nationalists
7.04 seek to accomplish new politics by searching for a new idealogical
and cultural identity, an indigenous constitutionalism, a strong
7.11 executive and a responsible legislature. They may or may not
produce effective and democratic government. American diplomacy
should seek new means and concepts to encourage the rising professionals in their search for authentic institutions. On their
success rests the West's security.

95Q Hill, M. F., "The White Settler's Role in Kenya," For. Aff., 38(4), July 1960: 638-645.

1.016 After building a railway from Mombasa to Lake Victoria, the
only practicable means of putting the Kenya Protectorate and the
5.064 railway itself on a sound economic basis was to call in white
settlers. They filled a vacuum, built the Colony of Kenya, and
7.12 created all the problems facing Kenya today. Although the Europeans
are the mainstay of the economy, their numbers are very small. The
new Constitution, worked out early this year, caused them some
dismay, even though the majority recognize the need for change and
the inevitability of an eventual independent African government.
Yet the white settler, often in the third generation, feels betrayed
and anxious for the future. So do the Arabs and Indians. The real
problem in Kenya today is how to correlate the rate of political
advance with the need for stable government and the preservation of
the economy.

95R Khan, M. A., "Pakistan Perspective," For. Aff., 38(4), July 1960: 547-556.

1.022 Pakistan came into being under considerable strains -- ideological,
economic, geographical and emotional. Even the best government
7.11 would have had to make extraordinary efforts to cope with the problems,
and unfortunately Pakistan did not have strong governments.
It was given a system of government totally unsuited to a country
like Pakistan. The October 1958 revolution was not aimed against
democracy as such, only against the manner in which its institutions
were worked. A scheme of "basic democracies" has now been
launched to meet Pakistan's special needs. The introduction of a
suitable constitutional system is expected at the end of the year.
Much-needed reforms are under way, but financial help on a large
scale is required; it ought to be given by the West from a feeling
of special responsibility in view of her firm attitude towards
Communism.

95S Rao, B. S., "The Future of Indian Democracy," For. Aff., 39(1), October 1960: 132-141.

1.021 The Indian Constitution of 1950 was based on the principles of
social equality and political justice, yet as long as social traditions
7.07 retain their present rididity, democratic institutions find
it difficult to grow roots. One puzzling feature of the democratic
7.16 experiment in India has been the disproportion between a party's
voting strength and its strength in the legislatures. The concentration
of power and authority in one man's hands cannot augur well

for the growth of democratic institutions. Since the last elections the Congress Party has lost ground. Mr. Nehru is on the defensive, especially in his foreign policy. A regrouping of existing political forces before the next general election is inevitable.

95T Tannenbaum, F., "The Political Dilemma in Latin America," For. Aff., 38(3), April 1960: 497-515.

1.03 There have been changes in Latin America in the last generation, but one thing has remained the same: the leader governs
1.04 because he can. He cannot abdicate as there is no legitimate heir. Latin America is no nearer to representative democracy today than
7.02 it was in the nineteenth century. It is not a feasible immediate alternative. The difficulty lies in the absence of a universally
7.03 accepted symbol of political authority, of a universally accepted principle of legitimacy. The independence movement destroyed
7.11 legitimate political power without providing a substitute. All that remained was centralism, authoritarianism, and aristocracy. There is no political party system; the constitution is not the instrument of government, there is no effective local self-government. The only way to make central government legitimate and get political stability would be to identify localities with the center, as there is little instability at the local level. But no political administrator has ever contemplated this possibility.

95U Badeau, J. S., "Islam and the Modern Middle East," For. Aff., 38(1), October 1959: 61-74.

5.16 The tension between Islam and the political and economic life of the Middle East, which has always existed, is particularly acute
7.11 today. Islam is changing its role, though it is not necessarily disappearing. Much depends on the definition of Islam which is not a term, but a general heading. Politically Islam is weakening, pan-Islamism is dead, unable to compete with nationalism. National interests, not shared religious traditions, are the present basis of foreign policy in the Middle East. Yet each national Muslim state embodies much Islamic political influence and activity, though the Western parliamentary system has disinherited the Muslim political system. But though Islam has today become the servant of nationalism, it is not dead among the masses and lives on as a constituent of the social structure, though the social revolution is directed against the Islamic past and may result in its eventual destruction. Yet no modern reinterpretation of Muslim thought has appeared and if the reality or pertinancy of the Muslim tradition disappears altogether, no framework of alternate values will assist the Middle East in directing its destiny.

96A Barry, G., "Fourteen Years of the Colombo Plan," Foreign Agric. Incl. Foreign Crops and Mktg., 2(17), April 1964: 5-7.

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96B Miles, H. A., "India's Package Program Teaches Farmers New Ways," Foreign Agric. Incl. Foreign Crops and Mktg., 2(34), 1964: 8, 9, and 16.

The Intensive Agricultural District Program or Package Program started in 1961 in seven highly productive districts of India. It aims at an increased farm output by a combination of improved farm practices, and is now showing important achievements. The number of farm plans, prepared by village level workers together with the farmers, has increased from 55,000 in 1960-1961 to 950,000 in 1963-1964. Yield improvements of 30-50% have been obtained in many cases. In 1962-1963 about 320,000 hectare were treated against pests and diseases. In the original seven districts the use of nitrogenous fertilizers was more than doubled and the use of phosphate fertilizers more than tripled since the start. The scheme is now receiving financial and technical assistance from the Ford Foundation. For the fourth 5-year plan, starting in 1966, an expansion of the work to several other agricultural districts is planned.

96C Ferguson, H. K., "Sudan's New Frontier for Displaced Farmers; in Kashemel-Girba a Farm Community Is Going Up For Sudanese Flooded Out By Egypt's High Dam," Foreign Agric. Incl. Foreign Crops and Mktg., 1(32), August 1963: 6-7.

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96D Rostowm Walt W., "Agriculture's Role in Economic Development," Foreign Agric. Incl. Foreign Crops and Mktg., 1(35), September 1963: 3-5.

3.01 Agriculture's three distinct but essential roles in promoting
growth in developing countries are to supply food required by
4.01 expanding urban populations, supply working capital for non-agricultural
development, and have higher agricultural incomes
stimulate development. Communist China is an example of what
happens when these dynamic interactions between industry and
agriculture are ignored or inadequately respected. In a number of
developing countries, there is a marked lag in the development of
rural areas. Industrial and agricultural development cannot be
regarded as competing for scarce capital resources. The initial
basis for take-off has been established; the momentum, which
diffusion of modern technology requires, must be maintained and
extended on a national basis.

96E "Blueprints for Progress -- The Agricultural Goals of Four Latin American Countries," Foreign Agric. Incl. Foreign Crops and Mktg., 26(4), April 1962: 5-7.

1.03 The article describes the agricultural goals of Argentina,
Brazil, Colombia, and Guatemala (Q. R. Bates, F. M. Milam, H. Hopp,
4.01 and J. E. Montel, respectively). Argentina plans to remove export
taxes, expand extension programs, carry out a campaign against
4.06 pests affecting plants and animals, improve transportation, and
improve credit facilities. Brazil's main goal is to open the
6.082 interior highlands for agricultural cultivation. Colombia plans
to diversify from its one-crop (coffee) agricultural program.
Guatemala must increase crop yields so that it can also diversify.

96F Long, E. J., "Agriculture and Political Destiny," Foreign Agric. Incl. Foreign Crops and Mktg., 26(8), August 1962: 6-7, and 20.

4.01 The author argues that the basic social and political character
of the emerging nations is now being forged at their agricultural
4.09 frontiers. Agricultural development involves pushing back scientific
and technological frontiers. The joint-family system will
4.10 have to be broken down. New tenure forms will have to be
developed. The family-farm should be strengthened. The tenure
4.14 system will greatly affect all political relationships. It will
also mean a transfer of power from a traditinnal elite to a special
4.16 elite characterized by an extraordinary quality of thought and of
motive.

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96G Miner, H. E., "How DLF Loans Help Feed Hungry Nations," Foreign Agric. Incl. Foreign Crops and Mktg., 25(4), April 1961: 3-5.

3.171 The article tells of loans made by the United States Development Loan Fund for agricultural development. The author cites examples of loans to aid irrigation, fertilization, as well as indirect aids to agriculture — e.g., access roads.

96H Doering, W. F., "The Free World Pools Resuurces to Spur Economic Growth of Underdeveloped Areas," Foreign Agric. Incl. Foreign Crops and Mktg., 24(5), May 1960: 12-13, and 20.

3.171 The paper describes the International Development Association
where purpose is to promote the less-developed areas by lending
4.05 money. Not only does it improve the prospects for their areas
but also serves American interest by providing funds for the purchase of American products that they would otherwise be made to purchase.

96I Parsons, Kenneth H., "Land Tenure in Asia (Part I and II)," Foreign Agric. Incl. Foreign Crops and Mktg., 24(4), April-May 1960: 4-6, 5, and 16-18.

1.02 Land reform is now the most controversial policy issue in the
agriculture of Asia. In a two-part article, the author reviews
4.14 the programs under way from Egypt eastward.

96J Warren, C. J., "Sudan Attempts to Shift From a One-Crop Economy," Foreign Agric. Incl. Foreign Crops and Mktg., 23(12), December: 1959: 5-6, and 20.

1.128 Weakened world prices for long staple cotton — Sudan's chief
export product — has accentuated the need for diversification.
4.11 The paper discusses the alternatives available to Sudan. Soil and
climate favor a favorable outcome to this problem.

96K Q. M. West, "Agricultural Development in Free Countries of Far East," Foreign Agric. Incl. Foreign Crops and Mktg., 23(9), September 1959: 7-8, and 20.

1.021 The paper describes the agricultural development of the free
countries of the Far East. The author focuses on India as an
4.11 example of development. Improvement of health and sanitary condi-
tions has set off a populatinn explosion. Agricultural production
5.07 has failed to keep pace with population increase. Much of the
increased production has resulted from increased yields rather than
increased amount of land under cultivation.

97A Drachoussoff, V., "Agricultural Change in the Belgian Congo: 1945-1960," Fd. Res. Inst. Stud., 5(2), 1965: 137-200.

1.127 This article presents a description of the geographical,
vegetational, and physical features of the area which is followed
4.11 by a detailed account of agricultural production between 1945 and
1960. Agricultural progress during the Belgian administration, especially from 1945, was remarkable; e.g., the index volume of exports increased from 100 (1953) to 167.2 (1959) for vegetable and animal products, vs. a corresponding increase to 120.1 for mineral products. Exports from the area (including Ruanda-Urundi) of farm, forestry and livestock products (including process agricultural products) totalled, in Congolese Francs, 2,064,745 (1945), 4,800,000 (1949) and 10,519,139 (1959). Chapters are included on changes in the organization of production, which examines traditional tenure systems, modified traditional agriculture, rationalized agriculture and the "paysannats", i.e., agricultural resettlement schemes, intensification, agricultural inputs, etc.; changes in agricultural output; changes in marketing; and changing economic conditions and government policies effect on agriculture.

97B Johnston, B. F., and J. W. Mellor, "The Nature of Agriculture's Contributions to Economic Development," Fd. Res. Inst. Stud., 1(3), November 1960: 335-336.

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98A Mathur, J.C., and C.L. Kapur, "Radio in Rural Adult Education and Schools in India," Fundamental and Adult Education, 11, 1959: 97-118.

1.071 The paper considers separately the educational role of the
radio through rural and industrial programs on the one hand, and
6.09 school broadcasts on the other. Thus far, institutions and organi-
sations directly responsible for adult and general education have
6.110 not given much attention to the use of the radio. The planning of
adult education is not yet crystallized, and there appears to be a
tendency to try out a number of different methods at the same time.

98B Akil, F., "The Rural Teacher and Fundamental Education, an Experiment in Jordan," Fundamental and Adult Education, 10, 1958: 25-28.

1.241 The article discusses plans to organise programs of fundamental
education at the local level. The reasons for making particular
6.09 suggestions are discussed.

Propositions

1.249 (1) The probability that programs established in traditional areas
will be successful is increased if new programs are administer-
5.121 ed through trusted institutions. (P. 26.)
Evidence: Generalisation from experience in Jordan; non-quantitative.

98C Deshpande, A.R., "The Role of Social Education in Community Development Projects in India," Fundamental and Adult Education, 10, 1958: 73-81.

1.071 The paper describes the ways social education broadened its
scope in such a way as to be related to the lives of the people.
5.08 A plan for social education is described structurally. The paper
considers the role of the social education organiser in relation
6.09 to the Community Development Program of India.

98D Singh, S., "Social Education in India," Fundamental and Adult Education, 9, 1957: 89-98.

1.071 This article describes very briefly the organization and
working of social education in India. Because the ideals of the

6.09 movement are such that they can never be achieved, it is not possible to measure the achievements of social education in any mathematical terms, except perhaps in a limited way in the field of literacy. The social education movement has come to occupy an integral place in the country's development efforts.

98E "Pilot Project in Agricultural Education," Fundamental and Adult Education, 8, 1956: 180.

1.021
6.081 The Planning Research and Action Institute of Uttar Pradesh has undertaken a pilot project in agricultural education, an experiment with rural youth clubs between 12 and 20. As a result of study and observation of organizations already at work in other states of India, a program suited to local social and economic conditions and cultural patterns was drawn up for experimental clubs.

98F Wilhelm, Rolf, "A Voluntary Team in the El Salvador Rural Settlement Project," Fundamental and Adult Education, 7 (2), April 1955: 65-70.

1.050
6.09 This article describes the fundamental and adult education project operated by the Institute de Colonizacion Rural of El Salvador and the American Friends Service Committee at El Sitie del Nino, El Salvador.

99A Dozier, Craig L., "Mexico's Transformed Northwest; The Yagui, Mayo, and Fuerte Examples, Geog. Rev., 53(4), October 1963: 548-571.

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4.12
The plains area between the Bahia de Gaaymas and the Bahia de Topolobampo on the northwest coast of Mexico, a part of the Sonora Desert, has been transformed by irrigation within a period of 20 years. A socialist colony and a sugar mill were established by Americans in the 1890's. The colony disappeared, but the mill has continued. Since 1935, the minor irrigation works in the area have been replaced by three major dams eonstructed by the Mexican government. They provide water for 500,000 hectares. Prior to 1935, rice and sugar cane were the most important crops. They have been replaced by wheat and cotton. Drainage is necessary to prevent salinization of the land.

99B Hance, W. A., and others, "Source Areas of Export Production in Tropical Africa," Geog. Rev., 51(4), 1961: 407-499.

1.01
4.11
The map on which this paper is based is designed to show the source areas of tropical African exports, with values expressed as percentages of the total value. The map displays a pattern of many productive "islands" set in vast seas of emptiness. Such islands are "coastal" or "peripheral" in the highlands areund centers of irrigation, near mineral deposits and "Special islands", not fitting into the four classifications mentioned. North Africa, the Union of South Africa and the High Commission Territories and Madagascar are excluded.

100A Jennings, J. H., "The Cooperative Movement in the Southern Cameroons," Geography, 44, July 1959: 208.

1.132 This is a short article on the rapid growth of cooperative societies. The movement is of a relatively recent date and has

4.17 been entirely voluntary. The societies have handled mostly bananas, but are also developing cocoa, palm oil, and coffee.

100B White, H. P., "Mechanized Cultivation of Peasant Holdings in West Africa," Geography, 43, November 1958: 269-270.

1.01 This article enumerates some of the difficulties in a way of mechanizing cultivatinn to improve agricultural production in

4.10 West Africa, and describes three schemes for government-sponsored mechanized ploughing of peasant holdings. These schemes are in the Accra plains area of the Gold Coast and in the grasslands and boli lands of Sierra Leone. Cooperatives have taken over some of these operations.

101A Harrison Church, R. J., "Problems and Development of the Dry Zone of West Africa," Geogr. J., 127(2), June 1961: 187-204.

4.10 This article first describes the availability and use of the water resources of the Dry Zone lying south of the Sahara desert,

4.12 defined as the area with less than 500 millimeters average annual rainfall. Then, both the primitive agricultural economy of the area and various technical and economic aspects of the irrigation and water development schemes on the Senegal and Niger rivers are discussed.

101B Prescott, J. R. V., "Overpopulation and Overstocking in the Native Areas of Matabeleland," Geogr. J., 127(2), June 1961: 212-225.

1.130 A largely technical description of the natural resources, population, density, and growth and farming methods in the
4.10 African reserves in the 42,000 square mile province of Matabeleland, Southern Rhodesia. The effect of serious overpopulation
4.11 and overstocking on soil and water resources are described. Finally, the author discusses the solutions being applied under
4.12 the Native Husbandry Act of 1952, involving large scale consolidation and soil conservation work; the possibility of the achieve-
5.07 ment of the aims of the Act is doubted owing to the large numbers of people and stock surplus to the total area of the present African reserves.

102A Collins, W., "Extension Work in Kusasi, 1932-1959," Ghana Farmer, 4, May 1960: 64-71.

1.014 The author describes the physical characteristics of the Kusasi district and narrates the accomplishments of the Agricul-
4.10 tural Department's extension service there, in controlling grass burning, carrying out surveys, experimenting with fertilizers,
4.12 introduction of mixed farming, extension of dry season vegetable gardens, and distribution of superphosphate to groundnut farmers.

103A Curle, Adam, "Some aspects of educational planning in Underdeveloped Areas," Harvard Educ. R., 32(3), Summer 1962: 292-300.

1.021 An important article on the relation of education to development, in which the author suggests the replacement of the dicho-
3.07 tomy between consumption and investment education with a distinction between short-run and long-run investment in education. The
6.13 importance of close integration between educational and economic planning is brought out, particularly in relation to the need
6.14 to increase a country's absorptive capacity for educated people.

Propositions

1.021 (1) If in an underdeveloped country the people who have entered the middle class chose high-status professions and ignore
5.062 intermediate positions, economic growth will be inhibited. (P. 295.)
5.111 Evidence: Statistical comparison of doctors and medical technicians in India and Britain (only the Indian source is given).

104A Cheesman, W. J. W., "The Jordanian Co-Operative Movement," Horace Plunkett Foundation Yearbook Agric. Coop., 1960: 218-224.

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104B Rao, R. V., "Village Industries and Economic Reconstruction in India," Horace Plunkett Foundation Yearbook Agric. Coop., 1960: 271-276.

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104C Yuri, M., "The Progress of Agricultural Co-Operation in Latin America," Horace Plunkett Foundation Yearbook Agric. Coop., 1960: 204-211.

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104D Peiris, T. D. L., "Co-Operative Education in Ceylon," Horace Plunkett Foundation Yearbook Agric. Coop., 1956: 34-39.

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105A Barclay, Harold B., "Some Aspects of the Secularization Process in the Arab Sudan," Human Org., 24(1), Spring 1965: 43-48.

1.128 Cultural change in the Sudan today involves at least two
major processes: Islamization and Westernization. Attention is
5.021 paid primarily to the Westernization process and especially to
the inroads its secularizing influence makes on the observance of
5.02 rituals of the great tradition of Islam and the rituals of the
cults peripheral to that tradition. While the application of the
5.16 sacred law has been greatly curtailed as a result of government
reform, the observance of the rituals of the great tradition such
5.14 as the Pillars of the Faith and the dietary and family regulations
has remained much as it was prior to intensive European contact.
In contrast, observance of the rituals of the peripheral cults
and the life crises are being modified and, in some cases
abandoned, as a result of this contact. Government initiative
and force have been the chief mechanisms for change and significant for the perpetuation of the great tradition and for the
decline of many elements of the complementary localized or folk
tradition. The process of religious change in the modern Sudan
has similarities to the Reformation period of Europe.

Propositions

1.128 (1) The probability that a change will be adopted is increased
if an individual is introduced into a society where different
5.064 practices are the prevelant. (P. 44.)

Evidence: Example; there is a high incidence of indi-
5.14 viduals from southern Sudan adopting Islamic practices
when they migrate to the north where these practices
predominate.

105B Beckett, J.R., "Australia's Melanesian minority: Political Development in the Torres Straits Islands," Human Org., 27(2), Summer 1965: 152-158.

1.05 The Torres Straits Islanders deserve some attention as an
example of an indigenous, colored minority living in a modern,
1.06 wealthy, and predominantly white nation-state, particularly since
they are the only example of Melanesian people so placed. In the
3.10 field of political development the difference between the two
minorities, Melanesian and Aborigines, is striking. The Melanesian
5.064 have adapted to the political demands of the modern world, while
the Australian natives remain unorganized and white-dominated.
7.08 Effective political action by the Islanders was scarce until 1913,
when disputes over conditions on the pearling boats broke out.

7.11 The first general strike did not break out before 1936, and was clearly directed at the Queensland administration. More recently a further development has occurred with the creation of the "Aborigines and Torres Straits Islanders Advancement League."

105C Gulick, J., "Old Values and New Institutions in a Lebanese Arab City," Human Org., 24(1), Spring 1965: 49-52.

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During the past fifty years, the city of Tripoli has developed several characteristics which are generally associated with industrial urbanism: (1) great increase (600%) in population; (2) high population density; (3) high rate of literacy; (4) governmental bureaucracy providing services in health and education; (5) considerable dependence upon the mass media of communication; and (6) social class mobility related to a shift from an agrarian-commercial to a light-industrial economic base. However, the culture of the city also has certain characteristics which are not generally associated with industrial urbanism: (a) personal rather than "anonymous" social style in business and in politics; (b) strong familistic values; and (c) great importance of sectarian institutions in social welfare and education. Because of the nature of Lebanese culture, the industrialization of Tripoli has not resulted in that secularized and impersonal disorganization which, according to some theories, is a necessary concomitant of industrial urbanism.

105D Langenderfer, H.Q., "The Egyptian Executive: A Study in Conflict," Human Org., 24(1), Spring 1965: 89-95.

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A basic assumption of this paper is that enterprise managers play a vital role in economic development. In the United Arab Republic, there appear to be institutional and personal barriers growing out of the business-government organization structure and the prevailing political and social environment that may have a serious impact on management's ability to serve an effective role in accelerating economic development. The most important single barrier has been the government's inability to formulate, and to translate to managers and to the populace generally, any fundamental economic philosophy. Arab Socialism's very lack of clarity may be the most crucial barrier to economic development. A second significant barrier is the impact that the slowly changing social and cultural environment has on economic development. There are many who say that progress must be accomplished in a balanced manner--that the adaptation of proven technologies to a different environment is a long and complicated process. In Egypt the human factors in development have been shunted aside in favor of concern over technology and production. This lack of appreciation of the role of human resources in economic development helps to explain the absence of an incentive system for managers, the lack of a performance appraisal system, the favoritism toward labor, and the suspicious attitude regarding the motives of managers. These kinds of barriers make it clear why there are severe obstacles to significant contribution by management to accelerate economic development in Egypt.

105E Prins, A.H.J., "The Modified Syrian Schooner: Problem Formulation in Maritime Change," Human Org., 24(1), Spring 1965: 34-42.

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The same objective information on Syrian schooner traffic can be treated in two different ways. The field data are derived from observation on the spot and from port statistics in Bierut, which is treated as a focal area. The problem is what exactly changed in Syrian schooners and why. The main modifications, i.e., the installing of an auxiliary engine and the change of rig, have to be explained. Some of the observed changes can be explained by the isolation of a causative principle, other differences by using methods of co-variation. Enquiry by way of analogy and diagnosis (S.F. Nadel) to see whether the observed regularities of change are in accordance with a known order of things in shipping development. In so far this is not possible methods of induction are used, based on analysis. By the method of diagnosis general comparative models derived from evidence from a past era of transport under sail are used. This leads to the forumlation of a causal connection, having the force of a law. This law states that the specifications of shipowners cause specific changes in ships, through entrepreneurial knowledge of the exigencies of changes in maritime trade. Elements in the formulation process are installation of engines, Length Beam ratio, nature of cargoes (fruit-carriers require less speed, while quick despatch was less important for onions, oilseed or grain), notions of efficiency, and mercantile organization. By treating the same field data on the basis of analysis, this different method results in the formulation not of a causal nexus, implying some sequence in time, but of a rule of covariance in which the time factor is eliminated. A relation is established between running costs as expressed in upkeep of rigging and engine power, gross earnings and type of trade. This co-variability between the enumerated factors leads to the formulation of a so-called tangential rule of schooner viability.

105F Shuster, J.R., "Bureaucratic Transition in Morocco," Human Org., 24(1), Spring 1965: 53-58.

1.131 In Morocco bureaucracy is both an important instrument of
social change and an object of modernization. As instrument it
7.03 exhibits four attributes: control, continuity, cohesion, and
comprehensiveness. As object it involves structural and organizational
7.10 measures for its institutionalization. The structural
measures concern administrative self-sufficiency, especially
educational infrastructure. The organizational measures involve
recruitment and training of Moroccan personnel. Three difficulties
arise: continued dependence on foreign personnel; differential
job attraction; and bifurcation in skill levels. Some contradictions
are noted: short-term direct recruitment drives out long-term
training methods; recruitment success precludes system reform;
and return to higher recruitment standards may bring internal
conflict between superiors and subordinates. Future developments
in Moroccan bureaucracy are projected, and the relevance
of bureaucracy to development and modernization is suggested.

105G Willner, D., "Politics and Change in Israel: The Case of Land Settlement," Human Org., 24(1) Spring 1965: 65-72.

1.234 During the decade of the fifties a transformation took place
in the political climate within Israel. Commitment to ideology
4.15 declined, and intensity in party loyalty increasingly gave way
to practical politics. While the character of the mass immigration
5.10 is accepted as a major factor in this transformation, the role of
the political parties is stressed. The tactics they employed to
7.07 enlist immigrants indifferent to ideology impeded rational
implementation of national development, as is illustrated by the
7.11 land settlement program, eroding the claims of ideology and party
loyalty on established sectors of the population. The immigrants'
7.14 unanticipated manipulation of practical politics is seen as
conducive to national integration.

105H Buchler, I.R., "Caymanian Folk Medicine: A Problem in Applied Anthropology," Human Org., 23, Spring 1964: 48-49.

1.047 This is a case study of what the people of Grand Cayman
British West Indies believe about and expect from medicine. It
5.06 presents the thesis that medicines can be more effectively given
to a people if the doctor takes local beliefs about medicine into
5.122 account. For example, the people of Grand Cayman believe "that
liquids are more potent than pills."

5.17

105I Byrnes, Francis C., "Assignment to Ambiguity: Work Performance in Cross-Cultural Technical Assistance," Human Org., 23, Fall 1964: 196-209.

3.173 This is an "exploratory inquiry" which analyzes the problems faced by AID officials and their reactions to their experiences. Thirty-four technical advisors were interviewed. Their evaluations of their own performance, their skills and competencies, the frustrations they experienced, and the factors which influenced their decisions are studied.

105J du Toit, Brian M., "Substitution, a Process in Culture Change," Human Org., 23, Spring 1964: 16-23.

1.06 This case history of a Navajo Indian village is used to demonstrate that under certain conditions "deviant behavior may
5.122 become model." "Deviant behavior," which is often thought to be an expected result of culture change, may be simply a substi-
5.14 tute for a previous behavior which is no longer required or is prohibited. Culture change can give rise to a process "where one
5.18 institution is replaced by a second because it has the same value or serves the same purpose as did the former."

105K Goldrich, D., "Peasants' Sons in City Schools: An Inquiry into the Politics of Urbanization in Panama and Costa Rica," Human Org., 23(4), Winter 1964: 328-333.

1.048 A major question posed by the politics of urbanization is that of leadership. Political action among the growing urban mass
1.049 in Latin America is relatively limited, and, at present, one group in particular appears to possess a greater leadership
5.09 potential than others: peasants' sons with a vocational-school secondary education. This assumption is based on a study con-
7.13 ducted by questionnaire, in three Panamanian and Costa Rican vocational-mechanical arts schools. Student socialization and
7.02 political orientation were examined in terms of political awareness of the family, family relationships, student orientation towards current socio-political problems, and aspirations for social and political mobility. The conclusion is that due to the high degree of "anticipatory political socialization" (urban and national orientation) prior to migration, and to the stability of lower-class agrarian family relationships, peasants' sons with a secondary school education have the greatest leadership potential to serve as a link between the urban masses and the political elite, thereby representing their class' interests. Furtheremore,

due to the lack of social and familial disorganization among this group, actions when translated into political patterns are unlikely to be extremist. Thus, urbanization is characterized by increasing political moderation.

1052 Ishino, Iwao, and John Donoghue, "Small Versus Large-Scale Agriculture," Human Org., 23, Summer 1964: 119-122.

1.025 This article deals with a question raised by the Japanese
land reform in 1948. "Should Japan continue its policy of small-
4.14 scale farm production, or should she shift to a policy of large-
scale mechanized farming?" However, a reticulated organizational
4.11 structure was found to be present which enabled the farmers with
small plots to operate as efficiently as the large-scale farmer.
"Social and communications linkages" enabled individual farmers
to receive information as quickly as large-scale farmers.

1053 Junod, Violaine, "Entokozweni: Managing a Community Service in an Urban African Area," Human Org., 23, Spring 1964: 28-35.

3.120 This article deals with the problems encountered after the
establishment of "the John Gray Community Health Center in a
5.021 'poor white' area in Johannesburg." It is in the form of a case
history. The activities, membership, and racial resistance and
5.06 responses are discussed.

1054 MacDonald, John S., and Leatrice, "Institutional Economics and Rural Development: Two Italian Types," Human Org., 23, Summer 1964: 113-118.

1.06 This historical analysis explores the reasons behind the
development of two different systems of agriculture in Italy. In
4.07 the north, agriculture was commercialized relatively early, but
in the south, land was controlled by the nobility and clergy
4.14 until the first part of the nineteenth century. Differences be-
tween migration rates, political organization, and economic growth
5.07 in the north and south are studied.

5.10

105O Martin, Harry W., "Corellates of Adjustment Among American Indians in an Urban Environment," Human Org., 23, Winter 1964: 290-295.

1.06 Navajo, Sioux, and Choctaw Indians are compared on several
levels to establish their degree of adjustment to urban environ-
5.064 ments. "Military experience and adjustment" and "schooling and
adjustment" are two levels on which comparisons are drawn. Sex
5.14 and degree of nativity appear to be related to adjustment to
urban environments.
6.16

105P Rapoport, Robert N., "Some Notes on Para-Technical Factors in Cross-Cultural Consultation," Human Org., 23, Spring 1964: 5-10.

3.173 This study is based on interviews with six people and their
experiences in, and opinions about, "cross-cultural consultation."
5.14 Problems developing in programs where two different nationality
groups; or culture groups, come into contact are analyzed.
Possible pitfalls for the successful presentation and operation
of development programs are examined and preventative and remedial suggestions are offered.

105Q Reina, Ruben E., "The Urban World-View of a Tropical Forest Community in the Absence of a City, Peten, Guatemala," Human Org Org., 23, Winter 1964: 265-277.

1.046 This case study of the tropical forest community, Peten,
Guatemala, is support for the thesis that there can be "a strong
5.09 urban style of life in the absence of a true city." Peten can
be characterized as being physically a small town but psychologically urban and sophisticated. Reasons for Peten's peculiar
development are analyzed and the positive and negative effects
of this urban outlook are studied.

105R Wood, A.L., "Political Radicalism in Changing Sinhalese Villages," Human Org., 23(2), Summer 1964: 99-107.

1.232 The rise of political liberals in Ceylon's villages of low-country Sinhalese is explained by reference to the historical-
5.064 cultural context, and to a comparative analysis of interview
responses from these political variants, conservatives, and
7.16 criminal deviant types. Evidence supports the hypotheses that the
liberal occupies a socio-economic position between that of the
7.13 conservative and the criminal; that self evaluations of

7.21 conservatives, liberals, and criminals may be described, respectively, as successful, failure in achievement, and severe deprivation; and that liberals tend to accept change in non-political spheres of activity, although like conservatives, they tend to maintain a commitment to moral principles. Empirical data for testing these were derived from interviews with a random sample of adult males in five villages, providing 43 "conservatives" and 57 "liberals," operationally classified in terms of attitudes toward the liberal government then in office, and with 37 identified former criminals.

Propositions

1.232 (1) If the relative prosperity of a population's economy increases, then there is more likely to be an increase in
3.02 the subeitution of achievement for ascriptive bases of status. (P. 99.)
5.123 Evidence: Case study of Ceylon.

1.232 (2) If an individual is liberal (as opposed to being conservative)—categorised on the basis of social and economic
7.16 issues--, then he is likely to be more articulate in regard to social and economic issues.
Evidence: Interview of Sinhalese radicals as compared to conservatives; statistical data.

1.232 (3) If a person is a political liberal, then he is likely to occupy a socio-economic position in which he has achieved
7.16 "a modicum" of economic success but is frustrated in his efforts for greater social mobility. (P. 102.)
Evidence: Statistical distribution of conservatives and liberals with respect to occupation.

1.232 (4) If a person is a conservative, then he is likely to evaluate himself as being socio-economically "successful." (P. 102.)
7.16 Evidence: Subjective evaluation by respondents.

1.232 (5) If a person is a liberal, then he is likely to sense "failure in achievement." (P. 102.)
7.16 Evidence: Same as in no. 4.

1.232 (6) If a person is a "criminal," then he is likely to feel "severe deprivation" socio-economically. (P. 102.)
7.16 Evidence: Same as in no. 4.

1.232 (7) If a person is a liberal, then he is likely to be "moderately alienated" or hold attitudes favorable toward various types
7.16 of change. (P. 102.)
Evidence: Comparative responses to inquiries with respect to ease in earning a living, whether one would "leave the village," "could more be done?"

1.232 (8) If a person is a liberal, then he is as equally likely as a conservative to subscribe to the society's moral principles.
7.16 (P. 102.)
Evidence: Comparative responses to questions probing the ethical bases for behavior.

1.232 (9) If an individual is an offender against property (thief, burglar, etc.), then he is more likely to be a liberal than
7.16 a conservative. (P. 105.)
Evidence: Distribution of political recitations of criminals in Sinhalese society.

(10) If people are socially demoralized (i.e., dissatisfied with the social order), then they are "susceptible to conversion" (operationalized: more likely to be converted). (P. 106.)
Evidence: Speculative, but based on inferences from all the data in the study.

105S Ames, Michael M., "Ideological and Social Change in Ceylon," Human Org., 22(1), Spring 1963: 45-53.

1.232 Historical records for the past 400 years and the author's anthropological residence during 1959-1960 are reviewed to isolate
5.82 the most important factors contributing to a recent resurgence of Sinhalese Buddhism. Political and economic innovations of
5.16 Portuguese, Dutch, and especially British colonialists threatened the privileged status of the traditional Buddhist elite and led
7.11 to the emergence of a new, non-monastic, educated lay intelligentsia in the coastal areas of the island. This new intelli-
5.14 gentsia contributed to a reinterpretation of traditional doctrine, emphasizing universalistic values, pragmatism, achievement, and
5.09 anti-ritualism. Four modern reform movements are cited as illustrations of these doctrinal changes. It is concluded that: (1)
7.15 Weber's proposition that change in the socially decisive strata of a religion can be of profound importance is correct for Ceylon; (2) the Sinhalese are not Westernizing but reacting to Western influence by revitalizing traditional values; (3) urbanization does not lead to secularism but to increased religious pietism.

Propositions

5.01 (1) If a population is influenced by changes in political status,
class, occupation, and new realms of social experience, then
5.14 it develops a need for, or an interest in, a religion different
from that which his culture provides. (P. 48.)
7.01 Evidence: Study of religious response of Ceylonese
intellectuals.
1.232

1.232 (2) If an indigenous population remains in prolonged contact
with another culture, then the indigenous population does
5.14 not necessarily adopt the values and the institutions of
the other cultures. (P. 53.)
Evidence: Modification of Buddhism rather than
adoption of Christian or Western values.

1.232 (3) If a country urbanizes and industrializes, then it does not
necessarily acquire secular attitudes (with magic and
3.02 religion giving way to "progress").
Evidence: Increase in Buddhist religiosity, though
5.14 Ceylon is urbanizing; not quantitative.
5.16

105T Berreman, Gerald D., "Caste and Community Development," Human Org., 22, Spring 1963: 90-94.

1.021 From a study of Sirkanda, a village of the lower Himalayas,
the author generalizes regarding the role of caste in curtailing
4.14 community development. The central problem is that the dual aim
of democratization and increased farm productivity are not compatible.
5.06 Agricultural programs benefit primarily the landowner
who is typically of high caste and already relatively secure
5.08 financially.
7.23

105U Bondurant, Joan, "Traditional Polity and the Dynamics of Change in India," Human Org., 22(1), Spring 1963: 5-10.

1.021 This is an attempt to determine the traditional polity of
India by an examination of the great, or Sanskritic, tradition.
5.062 The most central and persisting concept in Indian traditional
polity is dharma, which refers to the constituents of the basic
5.122 system of obligations, with interdependent privileges and
responsibilities, and the integrative elements of the society.

5.16 This concept is examined with reference to its two components,
stability and flexibility, and the appeal of Gandhi is examined
and found to be in this tradition. The concept of dharma is seen
as above all dynamic and adaptive, and is contrasted with Western
natural law. Indian traditional polity is not fastened in dogma,
and central to India's tradition are concepts which are dynamic,
and lend themselves to transmogrification.

Propositions

1.021 (1) If a societal code (e.g., the Indian caste system) combines
an "inherent flexibility" with the usual behavioral pre-
5.062 scriptions, then it can serve as an agent of change or, at
least, a mechanism which does not inhibit change.
5.121 Evidence: Speculative--examination of the literature
about the Indian caste system; support for propositions
lies in scholarly consensus.

105V Brokensha, David, "Volta Resettlement and Anthropological Research," Human Org., 22(4), Winter 1963-1964: 286-290.

1.014 A sociology of resettlement is proposed, after considering
processes of resistance and acceptance to displacement of popu-
4.15 lation for hydro-electric projects. Brief examination is made of
resettlement at Kariba Dam (Northern Rhodesia and Southern
5.021 Rhodesia), and Aswan Dam (Egypt and Sudan). Despite policy and
governmental differences, common problems include preparations for
5.10 money, provision of land, water, food, housing, roads, schools
and other amenities. Volta Dam necessitates moving 67,000 people,
mostly subsistence farmers in isolated settlements. Ghana has
experience of resettlement from Tema Harbor, and faces problems
realistically. Anthropology has a special role in studying and
reporting on social organization and attitudes. Improved knowledge of such factors should both facilitate resettlement and
contribute to anthropological studies. Systematic inquiries at
Volta, and comparative studies elsewhere, would develop into
useful sociology of resettlement with practical and theoretical
implications.

Propositions

(1) If "the national interest" is appealed to in an effort to engender interest in relocation projects among the people to be relocated, then any gulf which exists between the government and the people will tend to be widened.
Evidence: Example from African relocation projects.

105W Cronell, John B., "Local Group Stability in the Japanese
Community," Human Org., 22, Summer 1963: 113-125.

1.025 The thesis of this case history is that certain features of
Japanese rural society are not "survivals" which are out of place
5.03 in modern society but are "stable adaptations to enduring
conditions." The local groups of farmers and their systems of
5.14 support and/or sanctions are rational responses to concrete
problems.

105X Frank, Andrew G., "Administrative Role Definition and Social
Change," Human Org., 22, Winter 1963: 238-242.

7.01 Three ideal types of administration are distinguished and
discussed: (1) under-defined, (2) well-defined, and (3) over-
7.03 defined. The author remarks that the first and third are not
desirable and that each resembles the other more than it does
the second. Finally, the polity implications of the three types
are considered.

105Y Fraser, Thomas M., Jr., "Socio-Cultural Parameters in Directed
Change," Human Org., 22(1), Spring 1963: 95-104.

1.021 There is a reluctance among anthropologists to put to the
practical test of prediction and planning the theory of cultural
3.11 change. Some of the initial operations required for successful
prediction are described. Data from a small community development
5.01 project in Orissa, India, are presented in a series of pairs, a
program in each pair having been successful, the other a failure.
5.04 Factors operating for and against acceptance of each program are
analyzed. It was found in the first pair (protected water supply
5.06 and sanitary latrines) that a general scarcity of water in the
project area was a decisive factor for acceptance of wells, while
ritual contamination through 'contact' with excreta was decisive
in the rejection of latrines. In the second pair, (improved
vegetables and poultry) a series of secondary positive factors in
connection with a drought year was sufficient to gain acceptance
for the vegetable program while formalization of a ritually
unclean occupation was decisive in causing the poultry program to
fail. The final pair (leatherworkers' and weavers' cooperatives)
illustrates the importance of social structure (caste) in the re-
action to innovative programs: the organization of the leather-
workers caste being conducive to cooperative enterprise, while the
weavers of the area were divided into several competing castes
which the program attempted to integrate into a single

organization. The concept of institutional and/or normative nodes is considered, defining areas of particular focus in the socio-cultural system. The nodes of donor and recipient cultures only rarely coincide. Several nodes are discussed with their extensive system of linkages to other aspects of the socio-cultural system, such as caste structure, ritual purity, and agro-economic organization. The construction of a cultural model of nodes and linkages should serve roughly to warn administrators of likely areas of resistance as well as areas of potential acceptance, and it should serve as a skeleton on which to integrate further socio-cultural data gathered in the course of an on-going program of directed change.

Propositions

1.021 (1) If there is a clearly perceived need for the material
benefits of a technological innovation, then it will tend
3.11 to be accepted in a village in spite of the fact that it
undercuts highly valued social relationships.
5.11o Evidence: Matched pair case study.

1.021 (2) If a technological innovation is accepted that undercuts
highly valued social relationships, then attempts will be
3.11 made to adapt the innovations in such a way as to maximize
within the limits of material improvements deriving from
5.121 the innovation the presentation of highly valued social
relationships.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

1.021 (3) If the acceptance of an innovation changes relative work
loads within the traditional division of labor and the
3.11 acceptance of the innovation can be blocked by role
occupants whose work load increases out of proportion to
5.111 the benefits of these role occupants, the innovation will
tend not to be accepted. (Propostiion holds in spite of
the fact that blocking group is of low status.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

1.021 (4) If the acceptance of an innovation involves the adoption
of practices which are perceived to be hindrances to the
3.11 upward mobility of the group, then the innovations will
tend not to be adopted.
5.062 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

3.11 (5) The probability that an organization's innovations will be accepted increases if there is an existing decision-
5.06 making hierarchy that can be adopted into the organizational innovations.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

105Z Gallin, Bernard, "Social Effects of Land Reform in Taiwan," Human Org., 22(2), Summer 1963: 109-112.

1.028 An anthropological study, based on 16 months field work in a Hokkien agricultural (wet-rice) village in the Chang-hua Country
4.14 area of Taiwan. It investigates socio-economic changes brought about by the Chinese government's land reform program (1949-1953),
7.02 especially with reference to the landlord class and its traditional leadership position in the rural village. Land reform has
7.21 led many landlords to withdraw their interest from the village, thus creating a leadership vacuum and problems of social disorganization. Though the landlords still form an important class in the rural areas, new developments do appear to be leading to some equalization in social status, as well as in economic wealth, in rural Taiwan. Nevertheless, before other capable villagers can assume leadership roles, there must be a change in the traditional attitudes of the villagers themselves toward leadership and authority.

Propositions

1.028 (1) If an individual does not have a major economic interest in an area, then he is not likely to have much interest in the
5.06 area's social, religious, and political affairs. (Political interest varies with economic interest.)
5.08 Evidence: Effect of land reform on formerly civic-minded major landholders in Taiwan; non quantitative.

1.028 (2) If the equalization of social status takes place in an area, then the likelihood of new leaders rising to power is in-
5.062 creased. (Assumption: that a miminum level of social status is necessary to attain and hold leadership.)
7.02 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

105AA Henshaw, Stanley K., "Applied Anthropology and Sociology in Tropical Africa," Human Org., 22, Winter 1963: 283-285.

1.01 This article deals with the types of applied projects being undertaken by sociologists and anthropologists in Africa and
5.01 current use of the "social-scientific orientation" by government

5.021 officials "toward social processes, culture, and values," The article indicates the types of projects being undertaken and the numbers of specialists that are involved.

105BB Hitchcock, J.T., "Some Effects of Recent Change in Rural Nepal," Human Org., 22(1), 1963: 75-82.

1.243 A field report is presented, based on data collected from the village Banyan Hill in the hills south of Annapurna Himal.
5.06 The following points are discussed: (1) the increased monetization in Banyan Hill and an increase in trade items available in nearby
5.08 regions; (2) the new patterns emerging for the concentration of wealth; (3) economic and political reform measures enacted by
7.02 the government to create "grass roots" democracy in rural areas and the difficulty of rural law enforcement; (4) the awareness of
7.23 new attitudes among the untouchables; (5) the increase in educational facilities; (6) the rise of the Magar headman; and (7) the improving status of the Magar group as a whole. Two aspects are seen as having special significance: (a) at present there are no landless families and little hunger, and (b) there is a growing leadership potential which can be counted on to respond to government guidance.

Propositions

1.243 (1) The probability of change is increased if individuals or groups are informed of different patterns of behavior which
5.12 will improve their position. (P. 78.)
Evidence: Examples from Nepalese experience, e.g.,
5.15 (1) laws improving the peasants' condition are observed where they are known and understood, (2) unclean castes are less satisfied with their situation when made aware of the equality practiced in the army.

105CC Johnson, Erwin H., "Perseverence Through Orderly Change," Human Org., 22(3), Fall 1963: 218-223.

1.025 This is a discussion of the persistence in rural Japan (the main example is Nagura mura in Aichi Prefecture) of the hamlet
5.06 level of social organization, even though a larger village form has been superimposed for at least 100 years. The history of
7.21 change in economic activity on the village level is sketched, and it is noted that the change has actually occurred through an additive and subtractive way. As new tasks were added at the village level, they were assigned both by political decision and

by village acceptance, to the new village level. Older tasks remained at the hamlet level. Over the century of modern history for Japan, many of the traditional tasks have simply disappeared and the new village level has become relatively important, while the traditional hamlet level has decreased in importance, but not with a competition or lack of fit between these two.

Propositions

3.13 (1) If primary production is critical to the local economy, then
localized economic units will persist. (P. 222.)
1.025 Evidence: Example of Japanese town.

1.025 (2) If primary production is not critical to the local economy,
then localized economic units may persist taking on
5.06 primarily social functions. (P. 222.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

1.025 (3) If economic behavior becomes increasingly collectivized,
then it does not necessarily follow that social behavior
3.13 will also become collectivized.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.
5.06

105DD Kolenda, P.M., "Toward a Model of the Hindu Jajmani System," Human Org., 22(1), 1963: 11-33.

1.021 The "jajmani" is a system of distribution in Indian villages
whereby high-caste landowning families are practically and
3.08 ritually served by lower castes such as carpenters, potters,
blacksmiths, watercarriers, sweepers, and laundrymen. A more
4.07 general model of the Hindu jajmani system is developed for future
research and analysis, and the jajmani "models" of W.H. Wiser,
5.06 H. Gould, E.R. Leach, T.O. Beidelman, and others are compared.
Important in new research on the system are: (1) a consideration
7.21 of the effects of supply, demand, and bargaining power of "kamins"
(servants); (2) jajmans' and kamins' statements about their own
motivation; (3) careful exploration of the sanctions for conformity to norms; and (4) the collection of codes for the jajmani
system in law and tradition.

105EE Luschinsky, Mildred S., "Problems of Culture Change in the Indian
Village," Human Org., 22, Spring 1963: 66-74.

1.021 This case study of a village in India explores the problems
arising when tradition and innovation come into conflict. Even
3.11 if an innovation can demonstrate its usefulness, it is likely to
be given a traditional explanation by villagers. This conflict
4.14 and confusionare demonstrated by cases involving public health,
education, birth control, land reform, and local government.

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105FF Mencher, Joan, "Growing up in South Malabar," Human Org., 22,
Spring 1963: 54-65.

1.021 This is a case history based on data collected from
"matrilineal caste groups in the village of Angadi, South Malabar,
5.061 Kerala State, India." Family organization is analyzed and its
influence on proper adult behavior is disscused. Changes in
family organization are related to subsequent child and adult
behavior.

105GG Orenstein, Henry, "Village Caste and the Welfare State," Human
Org., 22(1), Spring 1963: 83-89.

1.021 The Indian government and Congress Party planners have been
attempting to bring about a technologically modern, democratic
5.021 society, emphasizing "social justice," and devoid of "castism,"
but grounded on the allegedly traditional corporate village
5.08 community. Presented is an assessment of the results of the
relevant government activities in a region of Poona District.
7.233 Fieldwork was done in two periods,1954-55 and 1961. In the interval
a community development program had been introduced, the main
purpose of which was to implement the government program. Conditions
are described in three phases: the traditional village,
the tendencies discernable in 1954-1955, and the changes observed
in 1961. It is found that the government and Congress activities
have achieved the desired reuults in two respects; they have
weakened the practice of untouchability and broadened the villagers'
mental horizons. But efforts to bring about village unity and

democracy have been futile and self-defeating. Cooperative organizations based on more broadly defined areas were found to be more successful than the village-based ones.

Propositions

1.021 (1) If the base of an organization attempting developmental
change is "broad" (as opposed to being village-wide), then
5.06 it is more likely to be successful. [Authoritative commands
are more easily accepted by an impersonal outside source
5.08 than by a fellow villager whose local reputation may not be
congruent with the position he holds in the organization.]
7.233 (P. 88.)
Evidence: Case study of Indian village response to
7.21 village-wide organization whose leadership crossed class
lines.

1.021 (2) If it is necessary to engender hostility at an interpersonal
level for developmental norms to be established, then the
5.13 likelihood of the acceptance of the norms is decreased.
(P. 89.)
5.14 Evidence: Study of sources of locally-based organizations.

105HH Rowe, William L., "Changing Rural Class Structure and the Jajmani System," Human Org., 22, Spring, 1963: 41-44.

1.021 This paper analyzes "the contemporary functioning of the
jajmani system for the Noniya Caste of Village Senapur." The
3.08 author describes the emergence of a system, in which elements of
the modern and the traditional are combined.
5.062

Propositions

1.021 (1) The probability of change in a traditional institution will
be increased if the institution's environment changes.
5.121 (Pp. 41-44.)
Evidence: Example of Indian experience with change
5.18 in the jajmani as contact with the cash economy increased.

6

105II Rowe, William L., "Introduction—Special Issue: Contours of Culture Change in South Asia," Human Org., 22(1), Spring 1963:2-4.

1.02 A brief essay is presented outlining and interrelating the content of this special issue in which a group of area specialists
5.02 explore the contours of tradition and culture change in South Asia from a number of perspectives. The papers are grouped to-
5.12 gether under three categoriss: (1) traditions and institutions; (2) process of change; (3) directed change.

Propositions

No propositions.

105JJ Useem, John, and Ruth and John Donoghue, "Men in the Middle of the Third Culture: The Roles of American and Non-Western People in Cross-Cultural Administration," Human Org., 22, Fall 1963: 169-179.

3.17 "That segment of the world-encompassing third culture called the binational third culture is defined as the complex of patterns
5.14 learned and shared by communities of man stemming from both a Western and a non-Western society who regularly interact as they
5.15 relate their societies, or sections thereof, in the physical setting of a non-Western society." The third culture is investi-
5.122 gated with respect to its characteristics and its implications for cross-cultural administration.

105KK Wilmer, Ann R., "Problems of Management and Authority in a Transitional Society: A Case Study of a Javanese Factory," Human Org., 22, Summer 1963: 133-141.

1.023 This case study deals with the problem of management and authority in a Javanese factory. The departure of colonial
3.13 managers and their replacement by Javanese natives presented problems of worker control. The basis of European authority was
3.10 related to colonial government, but the Javanese (after independence) were forced to develop a style of management in keeping
5.06 with Javanese values, while hiding or eliminating European influences in the factory organizational and authority structure.

105LL Bennett, John W., "The Innovative Potential of American-Educated Japanese," Human Org., 21, Winter 1962-63: 246-251.

1.025 This case study deals with the factors influencing the potential for innovation of American-educated Japanese. Traditionalism and an emphasis on seniority inhibit innovative behavior in Japan. 5.112 And the fact that American-educated Japanese consciously conform to traditional warp has an effect upon social change. 6.16

105MM Dobyns, Henry F., Mongo M. Carlos, and Mario C. Vazquez, "Summary of Technical Organizational Progress and Reactions to It," Human Org., 21, Summer 1962: 109-115.

1.031 This is a tenth-year follow up research on a community development program in the Andean village of Vicos in Peru. It analyzes the impact of this program on the community, the neighborhood, the region, and the national levels. 5.08 This and similar programs are resulting in the movement of Indian peasants from the mountains toward new socio-economic possibilities by the sea. 5.10

105NN Gilbert, Scott, "Tanganyika and the Peace Corps: Some Preliminary Considerations," Human Org., 21(4), Winter 1962-63: 286-289.

1.122 Anthropologists and other members of the behavioral sciences may not have their services used by the government due to: (1) failing to learn about, adjust to, or effectively operate within bureaucracy and (2) being unable to communicate what they know, having misassessed their audience, or both. 3.173 An example of what is needed in the way of information is the list handed to the Peace Corps with reference to information which would be needed by a foreigner who must deal with, interact with, and understand the nationals of a host country in everyday situations. The list has six questions under General Cultural; eight questions under The Work Situation; four questions under American Reactions and Personal Behavior Which Might Offend Host Country Nationals; four questions under Administrative; five questions under Specific Cultural; and five questions under Cultural Change and Miscellaneous. At the end of each section space for additional questions is provided. The anthropologist can perform a useful function in government by providing such information as described above. The gathering of data would afford the scholar field-trip experience for both scholarly works and badly needed area expertise.

Propositions

No propositions.

10500 Holmberg, Allan R., and Henry F. Dobyns, "Community and Regional Development: The Joint Cornell-Peru Experiment, The Process of Accelarating Community Change," Human Org., 21(2), Summer 1962: 107-109.

1.031
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Recognizing community type and relating it to some goal-community is a first step in accelerating its change. Vicos was a semi-feudal entity set in a semi-medieval society in 1951 when the Cornell-Peru Project began modernizing it. The project introduced an egalitarian fundamental assumption as an alternative to a previous locally-universal, hierarchical, fundamental assumption about the nature of man. Formal education has been one operational definition of the new alternative whose acceptance and internalization (along with associated values) in the new Indian community was signalized by a parental lockout of school teachers in 1961 that sought and secured better-qualtiy administration.

Propositions

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(1) If the benefits of assumptions and values which are to be imposed on a culture are demonstrated by action, as well as through explanation and exhortation, then these assumptions and values stand a greater likelihood of being adopted by the culture. (P. 109.)

Evidence: Demonstration of egalitarianism through establishment of public school in Vicos Project.

105PP Kelly, Isabel, "Suggestions for the Training of Village-Level Workers," Human Org., 21, Winter 1962-63: 241-245.

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The case for more training for village-level community development workers is presented. A minimum of two-years of training appears advisable, especially if the village is characterized by a high rate of illiteracy. Examples of cases where shortcomings in preparation and training hindered programs are cited.

105QQ Lasswell, Harold D., "Integrating Communities into More Inclusive Systems," Human Org., 21, 1962: 116-124.

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The author discusses why the Cornell-Peruvian Project (or Vicos Project) was so successful. Primary emphasis is placed upon the scientific detachment of the Cornell staff. In conclusion, six suggestions for future projects are put forth.

105RR McHale, Thomas R., "Econocological Analysis and Differential Economic Growth Rate," Human Org., 21(1), Spring 1962: 30-35.

3.01 Econocological analysis is not a substitute for conventional
economic analysis but a complementary technique which attempts to
3.02 provide a proper frame of reference for the economist and his
theories. The variables of interest are meta-economic, yet their
impact on the scope and substance of economizing action is of
fundamental importance in understanding the economizing process.
With econocological analysis, the causes of differential growth
rates can be established, and basic problems of modern economic
development which are usually ignored in conventional economic
analysis can be identified.

Propositions

5.061 (1) If a society is kincentric (all "significant" social and
economic interaction is limited to kindred), then range of
3.10 specialization and division of labor are limited because
organizational size is determined by biological factors and
organizational flexibility is precluded by the highly static
"area of trust." (P. 31.)
Evidence: Speculation.

3.02 (2) If a society if kincentric, worker incentive is limited because his reward tends to be the average product of the
3.10 group regardless of his own marginal contribution. (P. 32.)
Evidence: Speculation.

5.061

5.111

105SS Niehoff, Arthur H., "Theravada Buddhism: A Vehicle for Technical Change," Human Org., 23(2), Summer 1962: 108-112.

1.242 The secular leadership in Lao villages is weak, while the
Buddhist leadership is strong. Moreover, the villagers are ac-
3.11 customed to communal work under the leadership of the monks. A
village self-help construction program in Laos in 1959-1960 was
3.173 utilized by the villagers and monks primarily to build religious
structures. Not only are the monks highly organized and the
5.022 villagers accustomed to work with them, but there is considerable
evidence that the monks are interested in technical innovations
5.121 and modernity. Two well-building programs were introduced in
1959-1961 by the United States aid mission, and the one group that
5.16 worked creatively at this effort was that of the monks. The
Buddhist fraternity could be used in a number of change programs—
education, village drainage and disposal systems, well

construction and operation, and general sanitation efforts in villages. At the very least no programs of this sort should be initiated without their approval.

Propositions

1.02 (1) If a population has been exploited and used by authoritarian rulers in conditions where "true economic expansion" is
1.241 virtually impossible, then it will develop an attitude of resignation and acceptance of the status quo. (P. 109.)
3.15 Evidence: Reference to the history of the peasants in Laos, Thailand, Burma, and Cambodia.
7.02

1.02 (2) If the recipients of an innovation are not given some responsibility in the maintenance of the innovation, then
3.15 the innovation is less likely to be successful. (P. 112.)
Evidence: Failure of numerous well projects in Southeast Asia.

7.02 (3) If the most effective leadership structure of a society is not utilized in the introduction of innovations, then the
7.21 innovation is less likely to be successful. (P. 112.)
Evidence: Speculation.

105TT Fischer, J.L., "The Japanese Schools for the Natives of Truk, Caroline Islands," Human Org., 23, Summer 1961: 83-88.

5.14 This article discusses the operation, between the two world wars, of Japanese schools on Truk. The physical plant and
6.04 course content of these schools are discussed, as well as the impact upon them of traditional values of the schools.
6.05

105UU Green, James W., "Success and Failure in Technical Assistance: A Case Study," Human Org., 20(1), Spring 1961: 2-10.

1.022 As part of a Pakistan government program, by 1955 nine institutions had been set up for training "multi-purpose village-
3.173 level workers" to assist in community development. The author and other international Cooperation Administration advisors
5.08 assigned to these institutions felt that the training was inadequate because of reliance on lectures to teach manipulative and
6.09 human relations skills. It was decided to set up workshops for the faculty in the functional method of teaching. Curricula were

7.232 to be reconstructed to conform to this method. The project seemed successful, yet a year later all institutions were using pre-workshop schedules. Reasons were: (1) insufficient involvement of the provincial directors; (2) the faculty's lack of skill in reconstructing schedules; (3)"a latent element of aversion" left over from the first workshop days; (4) the imposition of the workshop from the top; and (5) the inevitable relaxation of effort on completion of the workshop. Unanticipated results were: a greater acceptance of scientific analysis and evaluation as tools of administration, and acceptance of the advisors and demands for their assistance.

Propositions

1.022 (1) If developmental programs are perceived to be imposed from
the top so that they appear to be the "government's program,"
3.11 the possibility of success is diminished. (P. 2.)
Evidence: British efforts at developmental change on
7.232 a national basis in Pakistan.

1.022 (2) If field-workers (grinders, exports, Peace Corpsmen, technical
assistants, advisors, etc.) are not trained in the practical
3.17 application of the skills which they must teach, then the
likelihood of the skill being adopted is lessened.
Evidence: Case study of AID training project.

105VV Halpern, Joel M., "Culture Change in Laos and Serbia: Possible Tendencies Toward Universal Organizational Patterns," Human Org., 20(1), Spring 1961: 11-14.

1.06 An "attempt to identify some of the pertinent factors which
may influence the extent to which similar types of institutions
1.242 are emerging to serve shared goals in planned programs of economic and social development." Discussion is limited to "one
3.173 major institutional category and subculture in each of the two
geographic areas under consideration: namely, the relationship
3.07 between tht villager and the state in rural Laos and in Serbia.
It is suggested "that to establish and then maintain a modern
5.04 state in the administrative, economic, and industrial sense,
centralized authority and peasant participation are essential.
7.03 Yet, in order for the state to function, this participation must
be limited and controlled, and decision making must of necessity
7.21 be, and remain, highly centralized in a group which can coordinate
the emerging bureaucracies effectively." Programs of the United
Nations Technical Assistance Administration and other types of
planned change and their implementation must be studied on a

"worldwide basis." It is suggested that anthropologists approach the problem in terms of the delimited rural community, especially its relationship to "larger political units including the national state."

Propositions

1.06 (1) If the peasant sees himself as part of the larger political system which his ancestors helped to create and within
1.242 which he can alter his position, then the likelihood of
5.122 successful developmental change increases. (P. 13.)
Evidence: Comparison of Sinhian and Laotian peasants.
7.13

1.06 (2) If the villager sees himself as existing in a traditional hierarchy in which he accepts his place and in which prestige
1.242 is obtained through birth and "proper" religious behavior, then the likelihood of successful developmental change
5.111 decreases. (P. 13.)
Evidence: Same as in no.1.

7.231 (3) As governmental involvement in people's lives increases, so too do the cultural behavioral differences in response to developmental change decrease. (P. 13.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

105WW Foster, George M., "Interpersonal Relations in Peasant Society," Human Org., 19(4), 1960-61: 174-184.

5.01 Examination of published data on peasant societies (communities of class-structures, economically complex, pre-industrial
5.06 civilizations, in which trade is well developed, money commonly used, etc.) show great similarity and suggest that interpersonal
5.08 relations are closer to being characterized by the qualities of fear, envy and distrust, as described by Oscar Lewis, than by
6.16 the harmonious qualities described by Redfield. Implications for applied work in present societies are that: (1) villages must be approached with the assumption that most villagers are uncooperative, and (2) a major educational effort must be made to break the traditional image of a static economy in the minds of the villagers.

105XX Gilliver, Philip M., "Incentives in Labor Migration," *Human Org.*, 19(3), Fall 1960: 159-163.

1.122 Large-scale labor migrations in eastern and southern Africa
are classified into two types on the basis of information from
1.130 Tanganyika and Rhodesia. The first, "low-wage rural employment,"
results in little new learning or experience with the outside
3.10 world and little financial or social impact on the home community
when the migrant returns. The second, "high wage-industrial
5.10 employment," results in considerable change in the lives and
expectations of the men and an impact on the home communities.
The first type is related to incentives in labor migration in that
the movement is undertaken from financial necessity but does not
tend to lead to further labor migration, while the second tends
to provide incentives for further labor migration.

Propositions

3.05 (1) If a man's earning capacity is low, then the direct incentive to work harder or longer is low.
3.10 Evidence: Speculation.

3.10 (2) If a man is engaged in low-wage, rural employment, then he is coming into contact with very little which tempts him
4099. to remain at work--rural life at home is preferable.
1.122 Evidence: Case study.
1.130

(3) If a young man has relatively few ties at home and few oppor-
5.10 tunities for improving his ecnomic situation, then migration is more attractive to him.
1.122 Evidence: Same as in no. 2.
1.130

1.122 (4) If a man engages in higher-wage, industrial employment, then he is likely to perceive that higher standards than those
1.130 which he has achieved are in reach.
Evidence: Same as in no. 2.
3.05

1.122 (5) If labor migration is primarily an economic phenomenon, then men will leave the security of rural employment for the
1.130 urban employment, even though it promises numerous uncertainties.
3.10 Evidence: Examples from Ngoni tribe of Tanganyika.
5.10

1.122 (6) If the wage differences between rural employment and urban employment are not significant enough to offer the possi-
1.130 bility of a "distinctly higher standard of living," then it is unlikely that the native will opt for urban employment.
3.05 Evidence: Examples from Tanganyika rural laborers who could work for slightly higher wages in a copper
3.10 mine.

105YY Gutkind, Peter C.W., "Congestion and Overcrowding: An African Urban Problem" Human Org., 19, Fall 1960: 129-134.

1.01 The problem of congestion and overcrowding of natives in African urban areas is discussed, and some possible ways to
5.09 eliminate this problem are analyzed. Legislation and town planning, improvement of societies, political factors, and the
7.232 multi-racial problem are considered. Shortcomings of existing surveys of African urban areas are proving to be a factor which hinders better understanding to the problem.

105ZZ LeVine, Robert A., "The Internalization of Political Values in Stateless Societies," Human Org., 19(2), Summer 1960: 51-58.

1.01 The author argues that the new states of Africa, and other "stateless" societies, are best analyzed by investigating decision
7.22 making at the local level. This technique is demonstrated by an analysis of the Gusii of Kenya and the Nuer of the Sudan.

Propositions

No propositions.

105AAA Marris, Peter, "Slum Clearance and Family Life in Lagos," Human Org., 19, Fall 1960: 123-128.

1.012 This case history of slum clearance in Lagos deals primarily with the consequences and pitfalls of slum clearance programs.
5.09 Physical destruction of a neighborhood has consequences for every aspect of the slum dwellers' life, especially in economic and domestic matters. Two conditions for successful slum clearance programs are suggested: (1) new housing that people can afford; (2) re-establishment of old patterns of living in the new area.

105BBB Miner, Horace, "Culture Change Under Pressure: A Hausa Case," Human Org., 19(3), Fall 1960: 164-167.

1.012 This article discusses British success in organizing the
Hausa to clear the brush from the banks of streams. The brush
5.021 was the haven of the tsetse fly, which made encephalitis endemic
in the area. Although the Hausa have cleared the brush yearly for
5.112 over twenty years, and the fly and the disease are virtually
eliminated, the natives clear the brush only because they are
7.231 forced to do so. This is the case because cultural factors make
them reject the British explanation of the disease's cause.

Propositions

1.012 (1) The probability that a change will be accepted is decreased
if a society's culture is in opposition to the change.
5.112 (P. 167.)

Evidence: Example of the Hausa experience; the Hausa culture explained the cause of sleeping sickness differently from the British, given their interpretation the disease could not be cured by removing the brush; hence, they will not do so willingly.

105CCC Pearsall, Marion, "A Model for the Analysis of Cross-Cultural Action Programs," Human Org., 19(4), Winter 1960-61: 212-215.

1.06 Action research in culture change needs a clearer conceptual
distinction between (1) analysis of underlying cultural conditions
5.01 and (2) analysis of programs designed to alter those conditions
than traditional approaches to acculturation allow. It needs a
5.122 general framework to analyze both cultural systems per se and the
actions of change agents in an inter-cultural network of roles--
5.14 concepts of changing to supplement concepts of change. Such a
model is proposed: first as a two-dimensional view of two (or
more) cultural systems in contact, and second as a three-dimensional view focusing on the actors in such cross-cultural
situations. The same conceptual variables are relevant to both
parts of the model: (a) cultural, (b) sociological, (c) psychological, (d) physiological, and (e) physical environmental. The
model is used in a study of the utilization of health resources
in a rural Kentucky county where the cultural systems are: (1)
a folklike system of medicine relying heavily on home remedies,
patent medicines, and magico-religious practices in settings
controlled by the patient and his family, and (2) a sophisticated
system of medicine based on scientific knowledge and practiced in
settings controlled by specialized professionals. The model
provides a general map for locating major frontiers of contact and

change between the systems and a device for analyzing factors thus identified as they operate in situations where professional health personnel seek to alter the behavior of individuals, families, or larger groupings. As presented, the model is a heuristic device with potential for the formulation and testing of hypotheses using the concepts and methods of any of the behavioral sciences.

Propositions

1.06 3.11 (1) As the number and kind of relevant facets of two cultural systems increases, so too does the likelihood of successful transfer of technology.
Evidence: Case study of Kentucky-Appalachian folk community.

105DDD Sibley. Willis E., "Social Structures and Planned Change: A Case Study from the Philippines," Human Org., 19(4), Winter 1960-61: 209-211.

1.026 3.11 5.04 5.061 5.17 A report of a case in which planned changes in activities related to economic life and sanitation in a Philippine peasant agricultural village failed to meet the expectations of the initiators of change. Changes were planned and initiated by the community school program of the Philippine Department of Education in an attempt to ameliorate deteriorating levels of living since World War II. Failure by the initiators of change, the school teachers on the local level, to recognize and utilize internal structural arrangements in the village seemed to contribute to the collapse of the program. Data were gathered in a village in southwestern Negros Island, composed of about 400 persons, who mostly earn their livings in tenant rice farming and wage labor in absentee-owned neighboring sugar fields, Four geographical zones were chosen by teachers as areas for village improvement--privy building, street and fence repair, house refurbishing, animal innoculation, and gardening. Zone officers were elected from among young people not generally considered to be village leaders. The majority of any adult's affiliations for work, leisure or political activities are contracted on the basis of dyadic relationships within the generally bilateral kinship structure of the group, and not on geographical location of the individuals within the village, the factor used in establishing the improvement zones. Village teachers are high status individuals, but perceived by villagers to be non-competent with respect to animal husbandry and innoculations, rice planting techniques and sanitation. Evidence that the villagers could cooperate and accomplish tasks was later demonstrated in a village-initiated effort to rebuild the road for a coming celebration. It is suggested that successful change may in some cases require that the changers begin with projects of interest to the villagers, regardless of the ultimate interests of the innovators.

Propositions

1.026 (1) If the natives do not perceive that the innovation process
expertise in the area of innovation, then the likelihood of
3.11 change successfully occurring is diminished. (P. 210.)
Evidence: Case study of Philippine community
5.113 development project.

5.08
1.026 (2) If structural arrangements of the population in the village
are avoided in task-solving and development, then the likeli-
5.08 hood of change successfully occuring is diminished.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

5.111
1.026 (3) As the perceived risk involved in the implementation of
innovation increases, so too does the likelihood of failure
5.08 of the innovation.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.
5.11

105EEE Smith, M.G., "Kagoro Political Development," Human Org., 19, Fall 1960: 137-149.

1.012 This case history of the Kagoro tribe of Northern Nigeria
traces the development of customs and organization from a period
5.01 before British rule to the present. Primary concern is placed
upon social change--its causes and effects. The author stresses
5.12 aspects of Kagoro evolution which have "general theoretical
significance;"

105FFF Hauser, Philip, "Cultural and Personal Obstacles to Economic Development in the Less Developed Areas," Human Org., 18 (2), Summer 1959: 78-84.

1.02 Several years of research and travel in South and Southeast
Asia lead to the analysis of cultural obstacles (reflected in
3.02 personal characteristics) in the achievement of national aspirations
to raise levels of living under two headings: (1) elements
5.112 of the colonial heritage which include truncated social orders,
pluralistic societies, over-urbanization, resurgent nationalism,
5.06 and mass-disillusionment, (2) elements of indigenous culture
which include value systems conflicting with material aspirations,
highly stratified societies, age prestige and deference, pre-scientific
mentality, atomism in interpersonal and inter-group
relations, and actual or potential demographic imbalance.

Propositions

1.02 (1) If ethnic, linguistic, religious, and economic pluralism
characterize a nation, then collective behavior toward common
5.01 goals will be difficult and modernization will be impeded.
Evidence: Speculation.

5.11

1.02 (2) If a nation is over-urbanized, that is, if more persons live
in urban areas than is justified economically, then modernization
5.09 is impeded.
(a) If over-urbanization, then capital outlays in urban
3.19 overhead (utilities, sanitation, etc.) are incommensurate
with economic development.
Evidence: Speculation.

1.02 (3) If a newly independent country experiences resurgent nationalism,
then modernization may be impeded.
7.16 (a) If nationalism, then there may be an impairment of national
unity because leaders may favor their own ethic or religious
7.13 elements.
(b) If nationalism, then there may follow nostalgic efforts
to restore the past.
Evidence: Speculation.

1.02 (4) If there exists (and continues) a great disparity between expectations
and rate of economic progress, then mass-disillusionment
3.02 may follow which further impedes modernization.
Evidence: Speculation.

3.15

1.02 5.062 (5) If a society is rigidly stratified so that there is little upward mobility, then there results an adverse effect on individual incentive conducive to economic advance.
Evidence: Speculation.

1.02 5.062 6.10 (6) If there is rigid stratification in a society, then persons with ability are restricted in terms of education, training, and opportunity consonant with effective utilization of human resources.
Evidence: Speculation.

1.02 5.062 (7) If there is a "great deal" of deference to age, then mobility may be restricted and modernization accordingly impeded.
Evidence: Speculation.

1.02 5.112 (8) If the population possesses a "pre-scientific mentality"--that is, it is superstitious, fearful of the unknown, etc.--then modernization tends to be impeded.
Evidence: Speculation.

1.02 5.11 (9) If atomism--characterized by lack of discipline, avoidance of responsibility, insecurity of physical property, general lack of national consciousness--characterizes a society, then modernization will be impeded.
Evidence: Speculation.

1.02 5.07 (10) If the birth rate continues to greatly exceed the mortality rate, then modernization tends to be impeded.
Evidence: United Nations data.

105GGG Holmberg, Allan R., "Land Tenure and Planned Social Change: A Case from Vicos, Peru," Human Org., 18, Spring 1959: 7-10.

1,031 3.175 4.14 5.06 This article discusses the experience of the Cornell-Peru project in initiating social change in a Peruvian hacienda. Emphasis is placed upon the desirability of minor changes which have wider effects. This case is not presented as a solution to all land reform problems. However, the author states that the experience of the Cornell-Peru project may be relevant to other areas.

Propositions

1.031 (1) The probability of successful social changes will be increased
if, initially, the changes are themselves minor but have a
5.04 pervasive impact upon the community. (P. 8.)
Evidence: Case study of the Peruvian hacienda.

1.031 (2) If an individual has control over his environment and realizes
a return from his effort, then there is a tendency for the
5.123 individual to be more ambitious and dynamic. (P. 9.)
Evidence: Explanation of why productivity rose 100% when
the peons took control of the hacienda.

105HHH Kahl, Joseph A., "Some Social Concomitants of Industrialization and
Urbanization," Human Org., 18 (2), Summer 1959: 53-74.

3.02 This is a research of recent major studies on the impact of
economic development, industrialization, and urbanization as
5.01 traditional societies become modernized. Consequences include:
(1) population growth, (2) the increased importance of cities,
5.06 (3) the shift from localism to nationalism, (4) a division of
labor in which agriculture becomes proportionally less important,
5.09 (5) formal education for participation in the new division of
labor, (6) expansion of middle and upper social classes, (7) expectation of an increased standard of living, (8) emphasis on the
nuclear family, and (9) organic solidarity. Examples are drawn
from many studies, especially of Mexico-African societies, India
and the Middle East. It is indicated that much recent research
consists of descriptive surveys of new cities and does not focus
directly on the process of change. A selected annotated bibliography is included.

Propositions

3.02 (1) If a country does not increase its agricultural and industrial
production faster than it increases its population, then it
5.07 cannot progress economically. (P. 54.)
Evidence: Speculation.

105III Opler, Morris E., William L. Rowe, and Mildred R. Stroop, "Indian
National and State Elections in a Village Context," Human Org.,
18, Spring 1959: 30-34.

1.021 The caste system, a tradition of female subordination and "strong authority lines in families and lineages", influence
7.09 the outcome of elections in India's villages. The democratic forms and frameworks exist, but the democratic spirit to question
7.13 traditional authority is lacking. This case study suggests that the rise of free and democratic participation in elections will
7.21 depend upon the gradual decline of the traditional outlook.

105JJJ "Planned Change: A Symposium," Human Org., 18 (1), Spring 1959: 2-29.

4.14 An introduction by John W. Bennett indicates that planned changes can be understood as a concept of a society which exists,
5.01 changes, and can be changed by human will. It is also a phase in the development of Whitehead's "persuasive institutions"--social
5.04 entities based on a consciously held ideal and devoted to serving a particular end, a process which attempts to reconcile two
5.14 value systems, one concerned with self-effacement and cooperation, the other with individualism and competition. Whitehead articu-
7.08 lated the paradox of planned change: "It may be impossible to conceive a reorganization of society adequate for the removal of some admitted evil without destroying the social order." Julian Steward's "Prediction and Planning in Culture Change," contends that predictable cultural changes are inevitable and not amenable to social manipulation. Acculturation trends and the emergence of sub-cultural types stem from the interaction of three factors: (1) traditional, or base culture; (2) the world industrial culture; and (3) the specific regional context of the area where change is occurring. Certain sub-cultures are the result of large contexts within which these processes operate. For example, Japan because of primogenture and independence has produced a more socially mobile people than has either Malaya or Kenya which are foreign dominated and whose natives cannot compete with the resident foreign middle class. Experts are effective in helping to accelerate change that is implicit in its own context, but they cannot change its direction. Allan Holmberg in "Land Tenure and Planned Social Change: A Case from Vicos, Peru," reports on the Cornell-Peru project which conducted a research and development program on the modernization process. It was found that fundamental alternations in the patterns of land tenure and work produced significant culture changes. The natives had been part of a hacienda system in which the renter of land exploited their labor for his own profit. During the time that the project leased the land the people were taught new methods of agriculture and were introduced to the credit system. When control of the hacienda was turned over to the natives, collective potato production rose 600% and production on individual plots of land rose 100%. The

Vicos experiment represents an attempt to maximize cultural change through the introduction of a few significant innovations that can exert greatest influence on the culture.and will lead to a dynamic self-propelling system. Kurt H. Wolff presents, "Comment on Bennett, Steward, and Holberg." "Planning in Higher Education: Some Notes on Patterns and Problems" by David Reisman, describes the organizational basis of planned change in educational institutions, and comments on the dialectic of educational philosophy which stresses both relevance to a national constituency and adherence to the demands of scholarship. In "Voluntary Associations: Instruments and Objects of Change" David Sills states that maintaining membership interest and preserving organizational goals are the most important problems of voluntary associations. In examples from the United States, Southern Italy, and West Africa these problems are discussed as related to specific associations. The fact that voluntary associations are instruments of change makes it unlikely that they could be used successfully as instruments for ratinnal political change. Sol Tax, "Residential Integration: the Case of Hyde Park in Chicago," reports on the successful effort of a group of residents in a predominantly white neighborhood to racially integrate and stabilize their area, while resolving some moral questions in planned social change. Melvin Tumin writes a "Comment on Papers by Riesman, Sills, and Tax."

Propositions

5.12 (1) The emergent characteristics of a changing society are influenced by the characteristics of the traditional society. (P. 6.)

Evidence: Historical analysis, (e.g., different land inheritance patterns in Japan and Malaya contributed to a different pattern of evolution).

5.121 (2) If an individual or group has greater prestige, then their ability to initiate change is increased. (Pp. 14-15.)

6.14 Evidence: Example; a high-prestige university is able to institute educational changes more arbitrarily than less prestigeful schools which take leadership from the prestige institutions.

105KKK Hanks, L.M. Jr., "Indifference to Modern Education in a Thai Farming Community," Human Org., 17, Summer 1958: 9-14.

1.027 This article discusses attitudes towards education in a rural Thai village. Emphasis is placed upon the retention of traditional

6.12 attitudes.

6.16

105LLL Pepelasis, A.A., "The Image of the Past and Economic Backwardness," Human Org., 17 (4), Winter 1958-59: 19-27.

1.06 An examination of the economic development of Greece from the
time of its acquisition of independdnce in the early nineteenth
3.02 century to the present time. It is contended that attachment to
the past is a significant cause of the economic backwardness of
3.03 Greece. The hold of the past, particularly the effort to estab-
lish modern Greece as the legitimate heir to the Byzantine Empire,
3.16 is examined as affecting: (1) education (heavy emphasis on
classical studies); (2) the legal system (the late Byzantine
6.12 law was adopted as the basis of civil law); and (3) foreign capital
(which up until 1924 was mostly channeled into financing policies
of irredentism, neoclassic public buildings, etc.). It is
concluded that the tendency to remain attached to traditionalism
will have to be modified if Greece is to succeed in raising its
level of living.

Propositions

1.06 (1) If traditional values are remanticized to the point that they
are not called into question, then modernization will be im-
5.112 peded.
Evidence: Case study.

105MMM Wellin, Edward, "Implications of Local Culture for Public Health," Human Org., 16 (4), Winter 1958: 16-18.

5.122 "Local culture has three sorts of broad implications for public
health. First, it affects the objective profile, or the ecology,
5.17 of health and disease. Secondly, it creates its own, or subjective,
picture of health and disease. Finally, it influences the careers
of health programs." These three effects are investigated.

105NNN Alers-Montalvo, M., "Cultural Change in a Costa Rican Village," Human Org., 15 (4), Winter 1957: 2-7.

1.049 A report on an attempt to investigate cultural change in San
Juan Norte, a Costa Rican village of 340 population. Two
4.10 successfully introduced practices (use of insecticides and
adoption of a new variety of sugar cane) and an unsuccessfully
5.122 introduced practice (intensive cultivation of home vegetable
gardens for family consumption) were selected for study. Guided
intensive interviews, one on each practice, were conducted on a

random sample of the population. Crucial factors in the acceptance or rejection of the practices were: (1) prevalence of a need; (2) compatability of the practice with the culture; and (3) objective proof of the efficiency of the practice. These propositions may have to be modified if applied to large, more heterogeneous social systems.

Propositions

1.049 (1) If there is a felt need by the recipients of an innovation,
then that innovation is more likely to be accepted than if
3.11 no need is felt.
Evidence: Case study; intensive interviews of random
5.123 sample of village.

1.049 (2) If the innovation is compatible with the village culture, then
it is more likely to be accepted than if it is incompatible
3.11 or not compatible.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.
5.122

1.049 (3) If objective proof of the effectiveness of the innovation is
supplied (and perceived), then it is more likely to be
3.11 accepted than if not effective, perceived to be not effective,
or not perceived effective.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

1.049 (4) If change agents work through the local leadership structure or
the local prestige structure, then the innovation is more
3.11 likely to be accepted.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.
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1.049 (5) If a social system is stratified in such a way that there
exist distinct subcultures, then "cultural compatability"
3.11 as an accelerating condition for innovation will be more
difficult to effect.
5.062 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

105000 Brown, G. Gordon, "Some Problems of Culture Contact with Illustrations from East Africa and Samoa," Human Org., 16 (3), Fall 1957: 11-14.

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A strong and elaborate social organization may resist economic penetration. The nature and extent of cultural change inspired from outside is determined by the social values of the penetrated culture. Elements which suit the needs of the penetrated culture will be selected for adaption. Examples are given from Samoa and Hehe tribe in Tanganyika. Adoption of an implement is often restricted in use by traditional values. Equality of sexes as proclaimed by Christianity is respected in religious but not in secular meetings. Samoa prefers the autonomous Congregationalism because the village organization is traditional. Both cultures resist being absorbed into money economy because regular work would conflict with social and political activities.

Propositions

5.112 (1) If an innovation is not compatible with the village culture, then it is less likely to be accepted (in its present form)--though the innovation may be modified in some way to make it compatible or to be employed for some entirely different end.

(The main thesis is that the acceptance of innovations is contingent upon volume and intensity of contact and nature of the contact (war, religious conversion), and he emphasizes the social values of the local population and the role this plays on the selection of new forms.)

Evidence: Examples selected cross-culturally.

105PPP Etzioni, Amitai, "Solidaric Work-Group in Collective Settlements," Human Org., 16, Fall 1957: 2-6.

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"The aim of this paper is to explain the wide difference in solidarity observed in work groups on collective settlements (kibbutzim) in Israel. These differences will be explained in terms of the structure of the kibbutz and the position of different work groups in it, informal communication and control, as well as formal controls."

Propositions

No propositions.

105QQQ Smith, R.J., "Comparative Studies in Anthropology of the Interrelations between Social and Technological Change," Human Org., 16 (1), 1957: 30-36.

3.11 This paper discusses the methodology employed in the study of change. Present methods and studies are considered to be inadequate.
5.01 Some suggestions for improving these methods are offered.

Propositions

No propositions.

105RRR Dupree, Louis, "The Changing Character of South-Central Afghanistan Villages," Human Org., 14, Winter 1956: 26-29.

1.245 A short historical background provides the basis for a discussion of some present-day problems of Afghanistan villagers.
4.14 Land tenure and clan disintegration are examined, and their effects on the people analyzed. Land reclamation programs and their
5.06 possible future effects are also discsssed.

105SSS Ishino, Iwao, "Motivational Factors in a Japanese Labor Supply Organization," Human Org., 15 (2), Summer 1956: 12-17.

1.025 This paper analyzes behavioral factors which support the labor-boss system in Japan. The crucial factor is the oyabun - kobun
3.10 or pseudo-familial relationship. The labor-boss system is weakened as other institutions (e.g., labor unions) assume some of
5.061 its social welfare roles.

Propositions

No propositions.

105TTT Mintz, Sidney W., "The Role of the Middleman in the Internal Distribution System of a Caribbean Peasant Economy," Human Org., 15 (2), Summer 1956: 18-23.

1.041 This article describes the activity of petty marketers in Jamaica. Special attention is paid to the higglers. The author
3.08 explains why these middlemen are not replaced by more sophisticated economic institutions.

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105UUU Stein, William, "The Case of the Hungry Calves," Human Org., 15, Spring 1956: 15-21.

1.031 This is a case history of an "experiment" in the Andean Indian village of Hualcan, Peru. The Indian practice of taking part of

4.11 the cow's milk while the calves were still suckling was believed to be the cause of malnutrition in calves. Because of human

5.112 factors and the strength of tradition, the plan to let the calves have all the milk for an adequate period of time failed.

106A Gregory, W. F., "Policies for Agricultural Development," Illinois Agric. Econ., 4(3), 1964: 10=20.

4.01 4.06 The first policy issue is to make explicit the role expected of the agricultural sector and to insure that objectives for this sector are internally consistent and that they contribute toward the national goals. Research is needed to analyze the implications of alternative policy objectives for the agricultural sector. A number of specific types of such research are outlined. The problem of determining an acceptable growth rate for the agricultural sector is a critical one for research. The hypothesis is presented that in many underdeveloped countries improvement in marketing practices promises more immediate potential for increasing food supplies than adoption of new production practices.

106B Mackie, A. B., "The Role of Agriculture in Economic Growth and Development," Illinois Agric. Econ., 4(1), 1964: 1-10.

3.02 4.01 A distinction is drawn between the concepts of economic growth and development. The role of agriculture in economic growth in three groups of countries at different stages of development is outlined. A grouping is made of 78 countries by growth rates of gross domestic product, population, and agricultural production. A group of 70 countries is divided into those in which population growth exceeds that of agricultural production and into those in which the reverse is true. Some comments are made on the limitations imposed by lack of data, especially in the agricultural sectors of underdeveloped countries.

106C Montgomery, G., "Farm Management Research and Agricultural Development in India," Illinois Agric. Econ., 4(3), 1964: 38-45.

1.021 4.16 Research tasks for farm management in low-income countries are identified on the basis of experience in India. The focus in the paper is on the persons responsible for such identification, the extent and nature of needed farm management research, and the responsibilities of teachers in United States land-grant universities.

107A Sen, P. K., and V. Lakshminarain, "Studies in Agricultural Economies. II. On the Development of Agriculture and Village Economy Based on the Survey of a Typical Village of West Bengal," Indian Agr., 1(2), July 1957: 34-56.

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108A Karpov, A., and Ross Nebolaine, "Indus Valley -- Key to West Pakistan's Future," Indus, 3(12), 1963: 7-14.

1.022 This article deals with the effects of the division of the Indus Valley by the border between India and West Pakistan, reasons for the low agricultural production, water supplies and their use, and the prerequisites for further development.

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109A Menon, M. N., "Scholarships and Fellowships," Indian Council Agr. Res. Educ. Ser., 11(22), 1960: 227-228.

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109B Baweja, K. D., "Eligibility Standards for Admission to Agricultural Colleges," Indian Council Agr. Res. Educ. Ser., 11(22), 1960: 133-134.

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109C Buddemeier, W. D., "Supporting Courses and Their Value in Levelling Up the Class to Uniform Standard," Indian Council Agr. Res. Educ. Ser., 11(22), 1960: 211-214.

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109D Choucary, C. V. G., "Eligibility Standards for Agricultural and Veterinary Colleges and for Post-Graduate Institutes," Indian Council Agr. Res. Educ. Ser., 11(22), 1960: 140-142.

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109E Cummings, R. W., "Teaching Methods in Post-Graduate Institutes," Indian Council Agr. Res. Educ. Ser., 11(22), 1960: 102-105.

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109F Dastur, N. N., and H. Laxminarayana, "Teaching Methods in Post-Graduate Institutions," Indian Council Agr. Res. Educ. Ser., 11(22), 1960: 84-88.

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109G D'Souza, B. A., "Selection of Guides for Post-Graduate Trainees in Their Research Program," Indian Council Agr. Res. Educ. Ser., 11(22), 1960: 203-206.

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109H Hixson, E., "Teaching Methods in Post-Graduate Study," Indian Council Agr. Res. Educ. Ser., 11(22), 1960: 89-90.

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109I Krishnamurthi, S., "Scholarships and Fellowships," Indian Council Agr. Res. Educ. Ser., 11(22), 1960: 229-230.

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109J Krishnamurthi, S., "Supporting Courses and Their Value in Levelling Up the Class to a Uniform Standard," Indian Council Agr. Res. Educ. 11(22), 1960: 215-218.

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109K Krishnamurthi, S., "Teaching Methods in Post-Graduate Institute," Indian Council Agr. Res. Educ. Ser., 11(22), 1960: 91-96.

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109L Kumar, L. S. S., "Eligibility Standards for Agricultural and Veterinary Colleges and for Post-Graduate Institutes," Indian Council Agr. Res. Educ. Ser., 11(22), 1960: 137-139.

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109M Kumar, L. S. S., "Refresher Courses for Teachers in Agricultural Colleges," Indian Council Agr. Res. Educ. Ser., 11(22), 1960: 121-122.

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109N Lamba, P. S., "Minimum Standards for Colleges Offering the Degrees and Post-Graduate Degrees in Agriculture and Veterinary and Agriculture Sciences," Indian Council Agr. Res. Educ. Ser., 11(22), 1960: 176-182.

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109O Mariakulandai, A., "Refresher Courses -- How to Make Them More Useful," Indian Council Agr. Res. Educ. Ser., 11(22), 1960: 109-111.

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109P Menon, M. N., "Eligibility Standards for Agricultural and Veterinary Colleges and For Post-Graduate Institutes," Indian Council Agr. Res. Educ. Ser., 11(22), 1960: 135-136.

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109Q Menon, M. N., "Scholarships and Fellowships," Indian Council Agr. Res. Educ. Ser., 11(22), 1960: 227-228.

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110A Stern, R. M., "Policies for Trade and Development," Int. Conciliation, 527, March 1960: 307-372.

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The relationship between trade and development is a matter for international economic concern, but approaches to the problem vary in emphasis. To what extent can and should trade be manipulated to serve as a primary instrument for development? On what financial and commercial measures should policies for trade and development be concentrated? How effective can institutional mechanisms be in directing and giving impetus to the flow of international trade? It would seem that undue reliance should not be placed on trade to solve growth problems, and one should be skeptical of measures directed to specific trade problems. There is a danger in confusing short-term and long-term objectives; priority should be given to trade liberalization and increased marked access for the exports of developing countries. The role of the developing countries themselves in the ordering of their domestic policies is a critical one.

110B Papanek, G. F., "Framing a Development Program," Int. Conciliation, 527, March 1960: 307-372.

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This study examines the development of criteria that will guide decisions on the composition of development and technical assistance programs, the utility of such criteria and the difficulties inherent in their use and the possibility of progress in both respects. The questions that are asked concern the determination of a given country's development program; the factors and criteria relevant in composing a technical assistance program given its development program; the criteria that might be applicable in the international allocation of technical and development assistance and the respective roles of recipient countries and donor agencies in fixing the composition of both technical assistance and development programs. The desirable extent of planning is not discussed nor is any distinction made between government and private projects.

111A Patel, Surendra J., "Main Features of Economic Growth over the Century," Indian Econ. Journal, 11(3), 1964: 287-303.

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This paper summarizes some of the salient features of the process of economic growth of the industrial countries during the last century. The three aspects chosen for discussion are (1) the pace of economic growth, (2) structural changes in the pattern of output of the economy, and (3) capital formation and the rate of economic growth.

Economic growth seems to be negligible in the 4000 years before the beginning of the last century. A more or less sustained economic growth at a fairly satisfactory rate was experienced only by a few countries. Though there were fluctuations in the rate of growth of the industrialized countries, the long term trend indicates that the rate ranged between 1.2 to 2.8 per cent per annum. Irrespective of differences between economic conditions or economic systems, increasing technical knowledge and its use have played a crucial role in the process of economic growth. The late joiners to industrialization benefitted from the experience of the others and, therefore, enjoyed higher rates of economic growth, which in turn, have helped to narrow the economic distance among the nations. The time-dimension needed for narrowing the gap between the industrial and the newly developing countries is less likely to be much greater than 50 years.

If transport and communication were included in the industrial sector, the share of service sector has remained fairly stable at 33 to 36 per cent of the national income irrespective of the stage of development of a country. A relatively faster growth rate of the industrial sector over that of the agricultural sector has reversed the relative importance of these sectors in the industrialized countries. Within the industrial sector the relative importance of the heavy industries has increased one and a half to twice as fast as light industry in the early phase of industrialization. Whether capitalistic or Marxian, early growth of the heavy industries appears to have been a characteristic feature in nearly all the industrial countries.

The disparities in the savings-income ratio have been less than those in the international income levels as between different countries. Even though there is an inverse relation between investment and consumption at a point of time, in the dynamic context consumption would increase through a higher marginal rate of investment income ratio. There does not appear to be much evidence to indicate any precise behavior of the capital-output ratio. The experience of a number of countries, however, suggests that the capital-output ratio ranges between 3:1 to 4:1 depending on the economic conditions and institutional framework of a country.

Propositions

3.02 (1) The probability that each unit of capital assets will be
used efficiently increases in periods of rapid economic growth.
3.03 (Therefore, there is a lower capital to output ratio.)(P. 303.)
Evidence: Unsubstantiated, but presumably based upon
unreported data.

111B Madhavan, "Inflation and Economic Development--A Case Study of India," Indian Econ. Journal, 10(3), 1963: 257-266.

1.021 The author has tested, with the help of Indian data, some
hypotheses developed in the literature on inflation and economic
3.02 development, relating the movements in prices, profits investment,
and economic growth in underdeveloped countries. Measuring rate
3.09 of growth by changes in net national output at factor cost; inflation by consumer price index; the impact of price changes on industrial production by changes in manufacturing prices; and profits by taking profits after tax as a percentage of net worth as calculated by the Reserve Bank of India, the author examines the following hypotheses. (1) Periods of price inflation coincides with periods of rising profits. The author shows that Indian data from 1951-1952 to 1959-1960 do not conclusively support the thesis that periods of rising profits are also necessarily periods of rising prices. (2) The hypothesis of Bernstein and Patel that inflation does not encourage socially productive investment in underdeveloped countries is examined, and shown to be untenable in the light of Indian experience. (3) The hypothesis that inflation stimulates rate of growth is examined by fitting a linear equation relating rate of growth of net national income to the rate of change of consumers' price indices. Though the slope is positive, the correlation coefficient is not statistically significant. Thus, the Indian data do not reveal any systematic relationship between price changes and economic development. (4) The author also shows that the Indian data do suggest that changes in manufacturing price influence movements in industrial production.

Propositions

1.021 (1) The probability of an increased rate of production of goods
increases if the price level is progressively rising (providing
3.03 inflation is not so extreme as to lead to social disorder or
threaten the nature of contracts). (P. 257.)
3.09 Evidence: Historical interpretation (e.g., Britain,
Japan, United States, and the USSR).

(2) The probability of investment increases with rising prices and decreases with falling prices. (P. 263.)
Evidence: Interpretation of the Indian example (using historical methods).

111C Usher, D., "The Concept of Developmental Expenditure," Indian Econ. Journal, 10(4), 1963: 410-418.

"Developmental Expenditure" is an accounting concept, and its basic reference is to the effect of government expenditure on economic growth. (i.e., volume of growth-promoting government expenditure).

The object of this article is to explicate the concept of developmental expenditure, to indicate in a general way what sort of of assumptions its use normally implies, what service it can render in national accounting, what implications it carries, and what errors its indiscriminate use might lead to.

The two main issues in the evaluation of the concept of developmental expenditure are: (1) whether, given perfect knowledge about the future effects of every sort of government expenditure, it is possible in principle to establish a criterion for choosing developmental expenditures from among the whole of government expenditure; (2) whether the concept is helpful or misleading in actual circumstances where the ultimate consequences of an expenditure can at best be guessed. Development expenditure has been defined here with reference to choice among alternatives at a point of time but in the plan it is established as a timeless list of broad classes of expenditure. The concept of developmental expenditures carries no reference to the unhappy necessity of choosing at the margin among expenditures in the developmental category and among the potential beneficiaries of these expenditures. The concept admits no priorities. The designation of the set of expenditures as developmental abstracts away the whole, intricate problem of deciding just what the government ought and ought not to do.

Propositions

No propositions.

111D Kothari, V.N., "Cooperative Farming, Investment and Organizational Problems in Agriculture," *Indian Econ. Journal*, 9(4), 1962: 432-445.

1.021 The belief (not the author's) that organizational changes in
agriculture through cooperative joint farming as against peasant
4.05 farming supported by service cooperatives can deliver the goods
has led to the discussion of the economic side of the problem in
4.16 this paper. The first two sections are devoted to the statement
and critical examination of the unique advantages of cooperative
4.17 farming. In the third section, some investment and organizational
problems in agriculture are discussed. Throughout the Indian
example is kept in view.

Under cooperative farming, there are advantages of allocative efficiency like better cropping, better utilization of land--both intensive and extensive, reduction of disguised unemployment coupled with a greater investment horizon in which intermediate range of investments which are not thought of by the government and cannot be executed by individuals are jointly undertaken and the consequential reduction of unproductive consumption. In practice the advantages are not realized because of the obstacles to voluntary cooperation such as uncertainty of parallel efforts and lack of homogeneity of interests among the members, and even psychological factors involved. The most important factor, namely, the prevailing conditions of labor supply and wage payments are such that the prevailing wage rates will not affect all farmers (surplus farmers and deficit farmers) similarly to make cooperation the only desirable alternative to increase agricultural production. From the economic point of view, this very fact reduces the scope for executing cooperative investment projects in India. If the wage criterion is removed and compulsory free labor is demanded, the totalitarian implications will become dominant.

Better credit facilities over short and long periods and crop insurance schemes only can provide the finance and security required to enthuse the farmer to adopt better agricultural practices.

Propositions

4.183 (1) If members of a contemplated agricultural cooperative doubt the sincerity and integrity of other members of the cooperative, then the project is likely to fail. (P. 436.)

Evidence: Unsubstantiated assumption.

3.03 (2) The probability that an individual will save decreases if the situation is such that he questions whether he will be personally advantaged by saving. (P. 443.)

Evidence: Assumption regarding peasants' propensity to save in a cooperative situation.

111E Mujumdar, N.A., "Economic Development with Surplus Labor," Indian Econ. Journal, 7(3), January 1960: 284-315.

3.02 The paper attempts to evaluate in the light of practical
considerations the thesis that under-employment constitutes a
3.10 large investment potential in underdeveloped countries in that it
is possible to step up capital formation by utilizing this un-
7.23 utilized and under-utilized manpower. It is made out that even if
any government were bold enough to carry out the necessary
program of reorganization of agriculture, the savings potential
supposed to be concealed in the consequent release of the surplus
population may not be significant. The lines along which the
surplus labor can be utilized with advantage have been discussed
with their implications on policies and the importance of the
organizational factor emphasized.

111F Deshpande, S.H., "Labor Surpluses and Saving Potential in Underdeveloped Countries," Indian Econ. Journal, 6(3), January 1959: 376-389.

1.021 This is a study of the non-producing but consuming sector of
underdeveloped countries which the author calls "surplus labor."
3.03 Since surplus labor is not, or cannot, be used in the present
productive sector of any economy, it is a form of capital and
3.10 can be used to increase the rate of capital formation. This labor
pool can be used for many projects without hurting the present
productive capability of the economy.

111G Parthasarathi, G., "Agricultural Price Stabilization in the Context of Rapid Economic Development," Indian Econ. Journal, 6(4), April 1959: 456-465.

1.021 This paper makes an attempt to study, in the context of rapid
economic development, the price policy that should be adopted and
3.02 the manner it should be administered in India. It discusses the
experience of the U.S. and the USSR in agricultural price policy,
4.08 examines the likely trend of agricultural prices under rapid
economic development and their implications and further discusses
the need for price ceiling of agricultural commodities in India
and the methods by which price ceiling could be achieved.

111H Rosen, George, "Capital Markets and the Industrialization of Underdeveloped Economies," *Indian Econ. Journal*, 6(2), October 1958: 172-194.

1.021 This paper considers a broad framework of hypotheses which
focus upon the flow of finance in underdeveloped economies. The
3.03 specific hypotheses are formulated with reference to India, but
with the assumption that they may be generalized to other underdeveloped economies.

Propositions

1.021 (1) The probability that native capital will be invested in new
endeavors increases if the foreign sector is successful and
3.03 investment in similar activities will return yields greater
than those expected from investments in native subsistence
3.05 agriculture. (P. 180.)
Evidence: Apparently a generalization from experience,
4.03 but unsubstantiated.

111I Shivamaggi, H.B., "Working of Farm Tenancy Legislation in Bombay State," *Indian Econ. Journal*, 3, October 1955: 192-210.

1.021 The paper, which is a quantitative study of 200 tenants from
13 villages, attempts to determine how far the aims of the Tenancy
4.14 Law of 1939 have been fulfilled and how the conditions of the farm
tenants have improved. The desired changes in tenancy practices have not taken place: the tenants voluntarily give up the leased lands; they offer more rent than the maximum rate of rent laid down in the Law; they do not press for written lease agreements and rent receipts; most have not purchased lands to become owner-cultivators. The reasons are mainly economic, with the cause being excessive population pressure. The author concludes that no law can bring into effect equitable tenancy relations so long as the economic force (excessive number of tenants) works in adverse direction.

112A Bronfenbrenner, M., "An Elementary Agricultural Policy Model," Indian Econ. Rev., 4(3), February 1959: 17-23.

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112B Goyal, S. K., "An Inquiry into the Behavior of Output and Costs of Paddy Production in Ferozepore (Punjab)," Indian Econ. Rev., 4(4), August 1959: 169-177.

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This study attempts to collect, by means of the survey method, data on the production of paddy and inputs of labor and capital for different sizes of cultivation units in a group of four villages of the Ferozepore district. The output of paddy as well as the input, land, labor and capital, were all rendered in monetary terms and the technique and management factors were assumed to be constant. The author reached the following conclusions: (1) the absolute surplus, output minus input, goes on increasing with the size of farms, (2) the productivity of the resources, as indicated by the average output per acre, decreases as the unit of cultivation increases, (3) average inputs per acre fall with the increase in size of farms, (4) the rate of decline in output per acre is less than that of decline in inputs per acre with the increase in the size of the farm, (4) labor and capital per acre both decline in about the same proportion as the farm size increases.

112C Moorthy, S. Krishna, and Sten A. Thore, "Accelerator Theory in Education," Indian Econ. Rev., 4, February 1959: 57-69.

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113A Sivaraman, M. S., "Energising Indian Agriculture," Indian Farming, 13(11), February 1964: 9-11 and 23.

1.021 The author warns against a complacency about agricultural development. He notes that alleged increases in yield rise. The base year 1949-1950 have been in a large part the result of the use of a new method of statistically measuring output — the previous subjective means of measuring output probably used on the low side. He argues that the amount of chemical fertilizers a nation uses is an index of scientific advancement in farming.

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113B Kaura, N. R., "Hill Development; What is Being Done for the Punjab's Hill Zones," Indian Farming, 13(6), September 1963: 6-29.

1.021 The article describes the conditions of and the agricultural emphasis of the various zones of the hill country. These zones are: (1) sub-montana zone; (2) low hills zone; (3) mid-hills zone; (4) high hills zone; (5) cool and dry zone.

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113C Khan, A. R., S. K. Sharma, and J. Singh, "Kanjhawala Block Puts Its Best Foot Forward," Indian Farming, 13(8), November 1963: 27-29.

1.021 This article gives an account of the achievements of one farmer out of many who cooperated with specialists and from a small beginning gradually raised his yields by adopting new varities and combining other improved management practices in his farming program. The author makes the point that variety of crops alone will not be sufficient to significantly raise yield.

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113D Ramaul, S. N., "Development of Communications: The Basic Need," Indian Farming, 13(1), April 1963: 8-9.

1.021 The author calls for the improvement of roads in the hilly areas as the first step in improving communications. He urges the people in the hills to develop their lumber industry and direct their agricultural emphasis to horticulture.

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113E Singh, D., and P. P. Singh, "Building up Leadership From the Bottom," Indian Farming, 11(1), April 1961: 27.

1.021 "Democratic decentralization" or "Panchayat Raj" means that political freedom should trickle down to the common man. A
7.02 comprehensive training program has been taken in hand to equip the persons elected to positions of authority to discharge their
7.21 responsibility effectively. Particular stress was laid on agricultural planning at district, block, and village level; and ideas were exchanged on land improvement.

114A Rao, H. C. H., "Growth of Agriculture in the Punjab During the Decade 1952-62." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 20(3), 1965: 20-32.

1.021 4.11 4.06 4.12 Some of the factors responsible for the disparities in the growth of agricultural output between different groups of districts in the Punjab are identified and analyzed. The analysis suggests that the government should concentrate more on providing the necessary infra-structure, particularly irrigation, and on removing natural and institutional constraints such as soil erosion, water-logging, and the disincentives associated with share-cropping tenancy. Maximum benefits from scarce resources such as fertilizers can be obtained by restricting them to areas free from the above inhibiting factors and where yields are likely to be highest. The temptation to postpone long-term projects involving considerable costs and organizational effort in preference for quick-maturing projects is very strong in a situation where food requirements are pressing, but the cost of postponement will be very high because of the cumulative effect of water-logging and erosion.

114B Apte, D.P., "Uncertainties in Agriculture and Decisions of the Cultivators Regarding the Crops to be Cultivated," Indian J. Agric. Econ., 19(1), January-March 1964: 109-114.

1.021 4.06 4.07 4.16 The paper studies the cropping pattern of a sample of cultivators with a view to finding out the relation between the crops cultivated and rainfall, prices of agricultural produce, and certain factors peculiar to individual situations which influence the decisions of the farmers regarding the crops to be cultivated. The sample of cultivators showed that their decisions to take different crops depended upon two main considerations, namely, to achieve, as far as possible, self-sufficiency in respect of jowar and depending upon the availability of seed to take ground nut or other cash crops.

114C Desai, M.B., & Mehta, R.S., "Change and its Agencies in Community Development." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 19(3/4), 1964: 147-66.

1.021 4.18 5.08 On the basis of an intensive field study of the working of the community development block in Padra Taluka of Baroda district in Gujarat State, the obstacles and achievements of the block were assessed with a view to suggesting ways of making the program more effective and useful. The region has fertile land, assured rainfall, a well-maintained pattern of sustaining soil fertility,

5.11 and a strong pressure of population. One of the important findings of the study contradicts the general belief that the
5.12 location of the village in relation to the block headquarters makes considerable difference in the benefits and effects. Another finding, also contrary to general belief, is that large sections of the population on the lowest strata are not overlooked. The small farmer has benefited from the program, and in some cases it has been found that where certain basic agricultural overheads were available, the small farmer responded in greater measure than the big farmer. Furthermore, most of the investments were self-financed. The village-level worker performed a valuable service in maintaining the flow of information between program organization and the farmers, especially as a contact man providing information on local requirements and relating them to the points of supply.

Propositions

1.021 (1) As the distance of the village from the block headquarters (regional extension office) varies, the difference in
4.17 benefits and impact remain constant.
Evidence: Quantitative study of one of the blocks in Gujarat.

1.021 (2) As the amount of land of the farmer of the region varies, the amount of benefit derived remains constant.
4.11 Evidence: Same as in No. 1.
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114D Ghosh, M.G., and Bandyopadhyay, N., "A Comparative Study of Some Aspects of Agricultural Development in Two States of Eastern Zone, West Bengal and Orissa." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 19(1), January-March 1964: 212-219.

1.021 This paper examines the difference in the rate of development in West Bengal and Orissa. The study attempts to assess the
4.08 following: (1) extent of changes in these two States and the differential rate; (2) how far conscious efforts at development
4.11 can be held responsible for these changes; (3) how far the rates are commensurate with the development expenditure incurred; (4) other possible factors reponsible for these changes. Overall extent and rate of change are not at all commensurate with either the need or the expenditure incurred for the purpose. The study raises serious doubt as to the efficiency and possibility of achieving greater production and answering better distribution through manipulation of price mechanism only.

114E Gopalakrishnan, M.D., and Rao, T.R., "Regional Variations in Agricultural Productivity in Andhra Pradesh." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 19(1), January-March 1964: 227-236.

1.021 The paper attempts to: (1) measure the degree of variation
in (a) output per area; (b) output per head in agriculture; and
4.11 (2) account for this variation between different districts of
Andhra Pradesh. The low productivity districts are those which
4.12 have low resources endowment. Low resource endowment leads to a
low level of organization which is reflected in cropping pattern.
4.07 Improvement of the physical framework within which farmers
operate is a necessary condition for improvement of the level
of organization, and thereby the gross value of product.

114F Jacoby, E.H., "Institutional Planning as Part of Agricultural Planning." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 19(2), April-June 1964: 1-12.

1.021 This article examines factors related to the human element,
4.05 as government, land tenure, and settlement, credit, marketing,
4.06 cooperation, and education and research.
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114G Kahlon, A.S., and Johl, S.S., "Nature and Role of Risk and Uncertainty in Agriculture." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 19(1), January-March 1964: 82-88.

1.021 The purpose of this study is to examine how the farmers
adjust their crop acreage to the uncertainties of occurrences
4.11 and make allowances for their conceptual uncertainties. The
study attempts to: (1) establish the fact and extent of variations
4.05 in the acreage of important commercial and food crops in
relation to the fact of variations in yields, prices, and
rainfall over their growing periods; and (2) to examine the fact
and extent of risk fund allowances the farmers make as a result
of conceptual uncertainties.

114H Karve, D.G., "An Approach to Agrarian Reform." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 19(3/4), 1964: 1-11.

1.021 An integrated approach to agrarian reform is advocated since
its goal should be defined for the whole community, both urban

4.14 and rural. Thus the relationships between different sectors should be clearly determined before taking action. In the absence of such an approach agriculture must often adjust to other sectors, and it therefore fluctuates unpredictably. The emphasis on cooperative organization varies in degree from country to country. Land reforms seek to remove institutions that have evolved historically around land rights. If state action stops at this stage, the resulting benefits would be limited. Alternative institutions should therefore support or supplement in full the replaced or reformed institutions. The cooperative organization appears the best choice among these alternatives because of its obvious advantages: it promotes self-help, freedom of choice, associated action and self-management. In the underdeveloped countries where land reforms have been made, those benefiting are the economically backward who possess few resources, have little training and completely lack self-confidence. Under these circumstances, they need initial guidance in cooperative action through active state help and training. Whether land reforms lead to better production and prosperity cannot be answered simply. Better production results from incentives, opportunities and institutional aids; land reforms only prepare the ground. The data collected in this connection are imprecise and inconclusive. At best they help to frame a hypothesis. Without intensive studies of production trends over a period of time, of living standards and of factors contributing to both these, no judgment can be pronounced on the effectiveness of land reforms. The evaluation of land reforms need not be made only in terms of physical or organizational factors, since they also imply certain social, moral and economic values. Furthermore, land reforms present the problem of how best to blend social responsibility with individual initiative. Reconciling these two opposite forces is difficult but a necessary job for developing economies.

Propositions

(1) If agricultural planning is not done in such a way that it is integrated into the total economic policy for a nation, than the plan will fail.
Evidence: None.

114I Krishna, J., and Desai, D.K., "Economic Models of Farm Planning Under Risk and Uncertainty." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 19(1), January-March 1964: 142-157.

1.021 Economic models for farm planning can be grouped into two categories: (1) models based on certainty, and (2) models of

4.01 risk and uncertainty. This paper tries to apply models of risk and uncertainty, namely, probalistic game theory and diversification models to problems of selecting fertilizer programs for maize and wheat in northern India and selecting a crop combination in Gujarat. The most serious limitation of the models of risk and uncertainty is the problem of getting sufficient information needed for the models. Secondly, the models under discussion are incapable of handling farm planning problems under profit-maximization.

114J Malya, M.M., and Rajagopalan, R., "Nature of Risk Associated With Rainfall and Its Effect on Farming--a Case Study of Kurnool District, Andhra Pradesh." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 19(1), January-March 1964: 76-81.

1.021 The paper attempts to determine the nature of risk associated with rainfall, the association between the reactions of the
4.05 farmer as seen from extent of cropping pattern and cropping and the level of rainfall, and the degree of loss incurred by the
4.11 farmer due to uncertain rainfall. The farmers do not vary the gross cropped area, current fallow, and cropping pattern. The
4.12 farmers prefer the goal of survival under uncertain rainfall conditions. As rainfall falls below normal the losses incurred by the farmer increased.

114K Naidu, V.T., "Risk and Uncertainty in Agriculture in Relation to Credit." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 19(1), January-March 1964: 129-132.

This paper discusses the ways in which risks can be reduced to the credit insititutions, to the investor in the credit institution, and to the borrower. Provision of adequate credit at reasonable rates though essential may not stimulate investment. An increase in farm investment will take place only when the risks and uncertainties in the minds of the farmers are removed. Along with credit, supply steps must, therfore, be taken to reduce natural and technical risks in farming.

114L Ruttan, V.W., "Equity and Productivity Objectives in Agrarian Reform Legislation: Perspectives on the New Philippine Land Reform Code." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 19(3/4), 1964: 114-30.

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This paper (1) reviews the evolution of political and equity objectives in agrarian reform legislation, and (2) analyzes the role of equity and productivity objectives in the 1963 Philippine land reform legislation. The new Philippine land reform legislation is considered to be particularly noteworthy in the emphasis placed on the improvement of agricultural productivity. Its major impact will be achieved by (1) replacing the existing share tenancy system with a fixed rent leasehold system; (2) increased security of tenure for the tenant; and (3) simultaneous efforts to develop effective supply, product, credit and extension institutions. The program will be implemented in stages rather than on a nation-wide basis. Crops traditionally grown under a plantation system are excluded from the provisions of the Act. Deficiencies in the expropriation provisions of the Act will, however, limit the effectiveness of provisions to transfer ownership of land to tenants.

114M Sharma, P.S., "A Regional Approach to Agricultural Development in India--Some Preliminary Results." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 19(1), January-March 1964: 176-192.

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This study seeks to highlight the regional variations in the field of agriculture with respect to selected physical indicators on the basis of decile approach. The composite decile ratings for various districts have been reduced to the indices, considering the lowest values for ten districts as the basis. The delineation of regions on the basis of resource indices has been attempted for each of the 15 states. The composite decile ratings for each district have been further related to the average productivity levels of rice and wheat along with the major crop patterns and soil type.

114N Bose, S.K., "Co-operative Credit and Agricultural Productivity in India: Experience of a Decade." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 18(1), January-March 1963: 224-231.

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Over the last decade of planning a great expansion has taken place in the cooperative movement. The follow-up surveys indicate that in many districts, cooperatives have come to occupy a position much more important than was revealed by the Rural Credit Survey of 1951-1952, while both agricultural credit in general

4.11 and cooperative credit in particular are admittedly inadequate. Forgetting the best results in terms of productivity, credit
4.17 plans have to be closely related to and based upon production plans.

Propositions

(1) If a cooperative credit program is to be successful, then it must be related to some plan of agricultural development.
Evidence: Unsubstantiated.

(2) If the land holdings of the farmer are large, then he is more likely to apply for and be granted a cooperative credit loan than a small farmer.
Evidence: Rural Credit Survey of India 1951-1952 and the three follow-up surveys of cooperative credit with Indian farmers.

1140 Deshpande, S.H., "Labor Pooling in Coopervative Joint Farms." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 18(2), April-June 1963: 22-32.

1.021 The article deals with the problems of incentives and labor allocations in cooperative joint farms and assesses the
4.10 cooperative joint farms' functioning and possibilities of success in India. Various disincentives involved in the pooling of
4.17 land and labor for cooperative joint farms are analytically discussed. The article concludes with a note that the technical advantages of joint farming are so large that the forces of disincentives would tend to peter off.

Propositions

(1) If large landholders stand to lose by voluntarily merging in a joint farm or cooperative, then they are less likely to do so.
Evidence: Unsubstantiated.

(2) If a cooperative cannot supply continuous full employment, then it will not succeed.
Evidence: Same as in No. 1.

114P "Economics of the Croppong Pattern." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 18(1), 1963: 24-181.

1.021 Twenty-one papers on the subject "economics of the cropping
pattern" submitted to the All-India Agricultural Economics
4.06 Conference, December 1962. These papers examine: (1) the
main characteristics of India's present cropping pattern, (2)
4.09 various factors which have determined the prevailing pattern and
caused recent changes, (3) principles or methods to be adopted
4.11 in the determination of better cropping patterns, and (4) the
evolution of policy measures aiming to induce the desirable changes
4.14 in crop patterns. (They furnish an almost exhaustive catalogue
of the physical, technological, economic, sociological, legis-
4.15 lative, administrative, and even political factors that
determine crop patterns.) Three approaches are considered for the
4.16 realization of plan targets for agricultural output, namely,
the yield approach, the maximum net income approach and the
7.03 plan target approach. The rapporteur's report and the summary
of group discussion are appended.

114Q "Levels of Living in Rural Areas (Including Tribal Areas)." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 18(1), January-March 1963: 238-366.

1.021 This article includes nineteen articles on the various aspects
of the levels of living in rural areas, based on case studies of
4.14 rural and tribal life in various parts of India. Differences in
the levels of living between various regions, villages, and the
4.15 socio-economic strata within the villages are analyzed and dis-
cussed in the background of regional differences: inter-village
4.16 differences, differences between occupational classes, between
social groups or communities, and difference between various size
4.17 groups of cultivator-holdings. Considerable light has been thrown
on consumption patterns and income positions of tribal communities.
The article contains the rapporteur's report and summary of
group discussion.

114R Mahabal, S.B., "Agricultural Development and Cooperative Finance." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 18(1), January-March 1963: 182-188.

1.021 The aim of this paper is to suggest and examine some of the
conditions which have to be satisfied if the provision of credit
4.05 is to prove effective in facilitating the process of development,
then to consider the close inter-relationship of development

4.17 finance which mainly takes the form of long-term and medium-term credit with the supply of short-term credit on the one side and with the provision of certain non-credit services on the other, and, lastly, to draw attention to certain practical aspects of the provision of medium-term and long-term loans for developmental purposes. Financial and technical supervision, the provision of other services by an extension machinery, proper working out of costs and detailed planning of new projects, are all necessary to ensure that the finance so provided is not misdirected and to ensure that it pays its way in the long run.

1146 Misra, B., Mitra, A.K., and Pati, L.K., "Agricultural Development and Cooperative Finance--a Study of a Cooperative Credit Society in Orissa." Indian J. Agric Econ., 18(1), January-March 1963: 209-212.

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The study suggests that the pressure of demand from members for loans for agricultural development on the cooperative society was not heavy. Given the favorable conditions, it is surprising that improvement of agricultural resources and practices is not rapidly taking place and incentive for investment for the purpose is lacking. Easy and cheap credit is one of the means for encouraging agricultural development, but in the absence of other necessary conditions it will not be fully utilised and the objectives will not be realised.

1147 Panikkar, K.S.L., "Agricultural Development and Cooperative Finance in Kerala." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 18(1), January-March 1963: 213-217.

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Though rapid agricultural advance calls for an appropriate climate for economic development and suitable institutional changes such as land tenure reform, the prime mover of agricultural development is introduction of superior technology. Productivity in agriculture, as in industry, is closely related to the volume of capital employed. In a subsistence farming dominated economy of unusually tiny holders and explosive population pressure the government should provide an initial breakthrough so that the economy can be developed to take-off stage when sufficient income will be generated to ensure the process of self-sustaining growth.

114U Singh, H., "Agricultural Development and Long-term Cooperative Finance." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 18(1), January-March 1963: 188-192.

1.021 Starting from an unusually low level of inputs in the farm
economy, the hope of developing agriculture rests on the program
4.05 of input intensification. There is neither any magic nor an
automaticity that whatever is done on cooperative basis is best
4.17 and something which should be preserved at all costs. In fact,
cooperatives can claim no special merit for being entrusted with
the role of disbursing long-term credit. The function can better
be performed by the government with its elaborate agencies engaged
in revenue, agriculture and extension functions.

114V Singh. T., "Agricultural Policy and Rural Economic Progress." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 18(1), January-March 1963: 10-23.

1.021 In the planning of agriculture, a much more central role
should be assigned to price policy and the organization of market-
4.06 ing than has been done so far. There are definite indications
that the existing agricultural administrations in the states, the
4.07 number and quality of extension personnel, and the techniques
of extension do not answer adequately the requirements of rapid
4.08 development in agriculture. Community action is an indispensable
condition for realizing substantial increase in agricultural
production, widespread adoption of superior techniques and
practices, and the organization of cooperatives. Under the
existing conditions of agricultural organization, the rural
economy is not well placed for mobilizing its manpower and other
resources and gaining adequately from the processes of industrial
and economic development which have been initiated.

114W Srinivasan, M., and Rajagopalan, V., "Agricultural Development and Cooperative Finance." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 18(1), January-March 1963: 217-224.

1.021 The paper is the study of the working of nine cooperative
institutions selected from six different types with particular
4.05 reference to the types and size of credit made available for
agricultural development purposes.

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114X Udaybhansinhji., "Agricultural Development and Long-term Cooperative Finance in Some Parts of Gujarat." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 18(1), January-March 1963: 193-196.

1.021 4.05 4.17 As is clear from the study of the various stages in agricultural development in cases of individuals, villages, and a Taluka, and that of the extent of long-term cooperative finance available at these levels, cooperative finance of this nature has made a definite contribution to the capital formation on land and consequently helped in raising its productivity. The emerging pattern of agricultural development moving more or less side by side with the increase in long-term cooperative finance, calls for the need for still higher allocation and utilization of this type of finance on a much wider scale, so as to solve the problem of higher production from agricultural land.

114Y "Conference Number," Indian J. of Agric. Econ., 17(1), January-March 1962: 360.

1.021 4.08 4.14 4.16 This conference number of the Journal contains the proceedings of the twenty-first annual conference of the Indian Society of Agricultural Economics held in December 1961 at Pilani (Rajasthan). The subjects discussed at the conference were: (1) Price policy for agricultural development; (2) Land reform legislation and implementation in different states; and (3) Budgeting and programming in farm management. This issue contains some of the papers presented on each of these subjects and the final reports of the Rapporteurs and also the summary of Group Discussions. It also contains a brief review of the proceedings and papers on "the role of agriculture in economic development" read at the Eleventh International Conference of Agricultural Economists held at Curernavaxa (Mexico) in August 1961.

114Z Dantwala, M.L., "Financial Implications of Land Reforms: Zamindari Abolition." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 17(4), October-December 1962: 1-11.

1.021 4.14 During the last decade, a series of legislation has been enacted in India for the reform of the land tenure system. This inevitably meant extensive transfers of legal rights and titles to land ownership. As compensation was to be paid for the acquisition of all rights, there have been corresponding financial transfers. This paper examines how this vast operation involving curtailment, accretion and transfer of rights was financed.

114AA Kalra, R.M., "Land Reforms Legislation and Its Implementation in Different States." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 17(1), January-March 1962: 114-123.

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The legislative history of land reforms can be broadly divided into three phases. The era of land reforms started with legislation for abolition of intermediaries which was undertaken between 1948 and 1954. During the next phase which started from the year 1953, measures for tenancy reforms were undertaken in different states. The third phase started in 1956 with the legislation for imposition of ceiling on existing holdings. While land reforms have largely succeeded in removing functionless intermediaries between the state and the cultivator, it has failed to solve the problem of uneconomic holdings or to correct the structural imbalance between land and labor.

114BB Mellor, John W., "Increasing Agricultural Production in Early Stages of Economic Development: Relationships, Problems and Prospects." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 17(2), April-June 1962: 29-46.

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On the basis of certain assumptions, the paper presents an analytical framework to study changes in the level and techniques of production of agricultural commodities in low-income countries. The discussion is divided into two distinct developmental phases: (1) providing agricultural development pre-conditions, and (2) rising agricultural production - low capital technology. The factors influencing output are divided into two: changes in input quantity within the confines of traditional production process, and technological, educational and institutional changes that alter input-output relationships. While production changes in phase (1) are studied from the standpoint of the first factor, in phase (2) the analysis is extended to include the second factor as well. The analysis is supported by statistical evidence from recent agricultural development in India and Japan. The requisites for development of new production processes are then discussed. It is felt that if production is to be increased more rapidly in phase (2) than in phase (1), a sharp increase in the productivity of the labor resources will be needed.

114CC Radhakrishna, D., "An Application of Linear Programming for Farm Planning: a Case Study in West Godavari District of Andhra Pradesh." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 17(2), April-June 1962: 73-82.

1.021 An attempt is made in this note to study the possibilities of increasing farm income by changes in the crop pattern with

4.06 existing resource supplies by applying linear programming technique to farm planning. The case study refers to a farm of 20 acres size (half wet and half dry) growing paddy, sugar-cane, plantains and tobacco in Nadupalle village of the West Godavari district. Data collected by the farm management investigation during the years 1957-1958 to 1959-1960 have been used for the purpose. The resource restrictions given are wet land, dry land, capital in two periods and labor in one period. Solutions are presented for two types of activities, namely, real activities (crops) and disposal activities (resources). Results from the programming analysis are presented for three situations. While the first plan would yield a net income of Rs. 8,874.64, the second plan showed an income increase of 6.5 % over the first and the third plan showed an increase of 6.2 % over the second or 13 % over the first plan.

114DD Rahudkar, W.B., "Farmer Characteristics Associated With the Adoption and Diffusion of Improved Farm Practices." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 17(2), April-June 1962: 82-85.

1.021 This note makes an attempt to explore: (1) the relationship of selected personal and socio-economic characteristics of farmers
4.10 in the adoption of improved farm practices; and (2) the extent to which these farmers are reached by various communication media
6.08 for adoption of improved farm practices. Education is an important factor for the adoption of recommended farm practices -- age, caste, and size group are not significant. Data for this study were secured by personal interview method from a total of 106 farmers of Bhadravati National Extension Service Block in the Chanda district in Mahanashtra State during the summer of 1958.

114EE Rao, V.K.R.V., "Agricultural Production and Productivity During the Plan Periods." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 17(1), January-March 1962: 8-21.

1.021 This article focuses on the changes that have taken place during the first two Five-year Plans in India. The lag of rural
4.06 areas behind urban areas with respect to social conditions is noted. The author argues for a policy of balanced agricultural
4.11 growth between the states.

114FF Dasgupta, H.S., "Cost and Profit in Relation to Size of Rice Farms in Bhubaneswar Area (Orissa)." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 16(4), October-December 1961: 58-60.

1.021 The note aims at securing a size of rice farm which will maximize profit at the existing level of labor and capital use,
4.08 by fitting the Cobb-Douglas power function to the data obtained during the year 1958-1959 from 32 sample farms of Bhubaneswar
4.12 area in Orissa State growing winter paddy only. It is found that a little more than 16 acres of land would maximize the profit
4.16 when other factors are kept constant at the geometric mean. However, if the resources are kept constant at the arithmetic mean, the size would be slightly higher than this. On this basis, it is concluded that for minimizing cost and maximizing profit, the economic size of rice farms would be between 16 and 24 acres at the present level of labor and capital use in the region.

114GG Malya, M.M., "Analysis of Personal Income Distributions in Rural Areas." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 16(1), January-March 1961: 187-195.

1.021 The pattern of income distribution varies from village to village. Inequalities in income are associated with unequal dis-
3.05 tribution of land holdings. Heavy reliance is placed on taxation for raising additional resources for the Third Plan;and to assess
4.04 the tax potential of rural areas, estimation of size distribution of incomes is essential. A study of existing conditions is
4.14 necessary for formulating, implementing, and evaluating any developmental plans toward a reduction of inequalities in income and wealth, a more even distribution of economic power and a greater measure of social justice.

114HH Narayana, D.L., "Food Production Potential of Paidipalli." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 16(4), October-December 1961: 1-12.

1.021 The article is based on a field survey conducted in November 1960 to estimate the food production potential of Paidipalli, a
4.10 village of normal size in Andhra Pradesh. The author has studied the socio-economic composition of the village, the pattern of
4.11 land utilization, the existing irrigation facilities, the irri-gation potential, crop pattern, farm productivity and the scope
4.12 for adopting improved methods of cultivation. The conclusion drawn from the analysis is that under the existing conditions, the

4.18 scope for increasing food production either by extensive cultivation or by the shift of land from commercial to food crops is limited. Great potentialities, however, exist in the irrigation resources, better utilization of manures, especially chemical fertilizers, and in the adoption of improved cultural practices. It is felt that productivity consciousness among farmers must be developed through specific programming under the community development program.

114II Westermarck, N., "The Human Factor and Economic Progress." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 16(2), April-June 1961: 12-18.

1.021 For many years it has been almost dogmatic in the theory of
political economy to regard the input of labor and capital as the
3.19 dominating factors. During more recent times, however, the con-
clusion has been reached that economic progress cannot be explained
4.09 only by taking into consideration capital and labor, but that
there is also a third factor - the human factor - which consists
4.18 of education, improved techniques, the stage of knowlege, etc.
The reason that farmers do not always react to the desirable extent
6.08 to advisory activities depends, among other things, on the
following: the so-called "farm blindness" (tendency to accept some conditions as fixed after a farmer has worked as a farmer for a long period of time), insufficient capacity of conception, and an all too strong dependence on prevailing village opinion. It is apparent that as long as advisory activity is not directed to individual farms with individual planning from case to case, a whole lot of measures will remain untaken.

Propositions

1.021 (1) If a person works for a long time in the milieu (e.g., farm-
ing), than he is more likely to consider some existing
4.183 conditions as fixed and unalterable.
Evidence: Unsubstantiated.

1.021 (2) If the farmer's capacity for conception of inno-
vation is low, then the increase of agricultural
4.18 output will be impeded.
Evidence: Same as in No. 1.

1.021 (3) If the farmer relies heavily on public opinion which is
status-quo oriented, than the increase of agricul-
4.18 tural output will be impeded.
Evidence: Same as in No. 1.

114JJ Agrawal, B.L., "Technique of Evaluating Rural Development Programs." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 15(1), January-March 1960: 102-110.

1.021 Evaluation is the process of identifying through scientific inquiry, methods, and procedures as to what is actually happening
4.02 as a result of a program and what, if any, adjustments need to be made. It involves six major considerations: (1) objectives
4.06 of the program; (2) action taken to reach the objectives; (3) collection, analysis, and interpretation of data; (4) comparison of actual and anticipated results; (5) drawing conclusions; and (6) using the findings to improve and guide future action.

114KK Bansil, P.C., "Evaluation of Rural Development Programs." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 15(1), January-March 1960: 110-116.

1.021 The paper discusses the problems faced in accurate evaluation of agricultural economic development and some general points by
4.02 way of improvement over the existing situation. The paper is highly critical of the existing indices of agricultural development.

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114LL Gupta, R., "Techniques of Evaluation of Programs of Rural Development." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 15(1), January-March 1960: 155-161.

1.021 The purpose of this paper is to suggest a theoretical framework for undertaking measurement of rural change in terms of the
4.02 progress of objectives and activities of the program and measurement of the cost of efforts involved in attaining results.
4.06 Emphasis has been given to broader issues connected with "techniques" of evaluation of rural development programs.

114MM Jha, Satish Chandra, "Innovation and Entrepreneurial Decision in Indian Paddy Enterprise." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 15(4), October-December 1960: 33-37.

1.021 The article presents the case of entrepreneurial decision with technological change in Indian paddy enterprise. By working
4.10 out the technical relationships of paddy production before and after the technological change the author shows that fertilizer
4.16 innovation changes the production function. However economic decision in India is very much guided by the intensity of economic interaction between the farm and the household in agricultural enterprise.

114NN Dantwala, M.L., "Impact of Redistribution and Pooling of Land on Agrarian Structure and Efficiency of Resource Use." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 14(4), October-December 1959: 80-86.

1.021 The article attempts to examine, in the light of the data recently made available, the likely impact of two specific land

4.14 reform measures, viz., ceilings on holdings and cooperative farming on the agrarian structure and efficiency of resource use in India. Inquires into the motives for the proposal to impose a ceiling on individual ownership of land, and examines the result of the application of the varous concepts of ceilings, viz., income, plough unit and work unit by reference to the data available in the Farm Management Studies sponsored by the Research Program Committee of the Planning Commission and the Directorate of Economics and Statistics of the Ministry of Food and Agriculture of the Government of India. For the purpose of illustration, it utilizes the data contained in the 1954-1955 Report of the U.P. Farm Management Study. It further examines the effects of the introduction of cooperative farming on the operational pattern of land surface.

11400 Sen, S.R., "Agricultural Economics Research and Economic Planning in India." Indian J. Agric. Econ., 14(4), October-December 1959: 66-72.

1.021 The article briefly reviews the development of agricultural economics as an independent subject of study in India and points

4.01 out the pioneering efforts of institutions such as the Indian Society of Agricultural Economics and the Indian Council of

4.02 Agricultural Research in the field. It reviews the progress of agricultural economics research with the adoption of India's First Five-Year Plan. It pleads for a shift of emphasis from subjects of philosophical interest to field studies and for a planned and purposive research designed to assist in the correct formulation and implementation of the Plant. The author indicates three important directions in which agricultural economic research is likely to prove useful in future for the purpose of planning, viz., research in production economics, operational research in marketing and distribution and programming exercises at different levels.

114PP Mukerjee, P.K., "Policy for the Development of the Rural Sector." Indian J. of Agric. Econ., 11(2), 1956: 188-192.

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This paper is concerned with the following maladies of Indian rural development: (1) smallness of size of the units of cultivation; (2) smallness of the units of ownership; (3) primitive capital equipment and lack of supply of some of the inputs both qualitatively and quantitatively; and (4) absence of suitable alternative employment in secondary and trinary sectors.

114QQ Srinivasan, M., "Policy for Development of the Rural Sector in the Second Five-Year Plan." Indian J. of Agric. Econ., 11(2), 1956: 193-198.

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Certain segments of Indian policy on land, crops, population and the welfare of the rural sector did not receive adequate emphasis in the First Five-Year Plan. The author feels that a blending of fiscal measures and crude physical controls is essential for implementation of the policy.

114RR Dantwala, M.L., "The Basic Approach to Land Reforms." Indian J. of Agric Econ., 8(1), 1953: 95-99.

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The author hypothesizes that it is not always possible to reconcile the three basic tenets governing the formulation of land tenure policy: equality, individual freedom, and efficiency. The problem is to suggest an optimun combination of the three principles and of balancing the sacrifice of one against the gains of another. The basic agricultural situation is the same all over India; the national ordering of agrarian relations must therefore also be the same. Local traditions and customs may be respected as long as they do not conflict with the rationally determined principles and practices.

115A Naik, K. C., "Organizational Trends in Agricultural Education in India," Indian J. Agric. and Vet. Educ., 5(2), April 1963: 76-79.

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115B Liming, O. N., "More Purposeful Curricula for Agricultural Colleges," Indian J. Agric. and Vet. Educ., 4(2), April 1962: 79-83.

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115C Nair, K. B., "Integrated Teaching of Agricultural and Veterinary Sciences," Indian J. Agric. and Vet. Educ., 4(2), April 1962: 84-86.

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115D Singh, B. N., and O. Ulrey, "Study of Examination System at Ranchi Agricultural College," Indian J. Agric. and Vet. Educ., 4(2), April 1962: 91-92.

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115E Singh, M., "Agriculture in Higher Secondary Schools," Indian J. Agric. and Vet. Educ., 4(2), April 1962: 75-78.

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115F Singh, M., "A Way Out of the Present Crisis in Agricultural Education," Indian J. Agric and Vet. Educ., 4(1), October 1961: 4-7

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115G Hannah, H. W., "Planning an Expanded Program of Agricultural Education," Indian J. Agric. and Vet. Educ., 3(2), February 1961: 79-81.

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115H Amble, V.N., "Statistics in Agricultural Education," Indian J. Agric. and Vet. Educa., 5(2), April 1963: 80-82.

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115I Buddemeier, W. D., "Agricultural Colleges and Food Production," Indian J. Agric. and Vet. Educ., 5(2), April 1963: 84-88.

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115J Dahama, O. P., "Training Needs of Extension Personnel at University Stage," Indian J. Agric. and Vet. Educ., 5(2), April, 1963: 92-96.

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116A Murthy, A.S., "Upgrading Efficiency of Extension Personnel," Indian J. of Agron., 7(4), 324-330.

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116B Sharma, S. L., "Evidence in Extension Evaluation," Indian J. of Agron., 7(1), October 1962: 98-104.

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116C Khan, A. R., and S. Kumar, "Results Demonstrated Evaluated," Indian J. Agron., 6(2), December 1961: 153-154.

1.021 According to the decision taken by the Government of India a country-wide campaign of intensive food production was taken up during 1958. The object of the campaign was to raise food production by using the improved technique and fully mobilising and co-ordinating the available resources, agencies, and organisations. 6.08 Improved seed alone, improved practices alone, and a combination of the two led to increased yield. New methods were found to be economically sound.

116D Rahudkar, W. B., "Research Methodology in Agricultural Extension," Indian J. Agron., 5(1), September 1960: 47-56.

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117A Moolani, J. K., "Changing Patterns in Agricultural Education in India," Indian Agr., 7(1-2), January-July 1963: 1-6.

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117B Sen, P. K., "Why Agricultural Scientists Have Failed to Make Their Impact on Food Production and National Development" Indian Agr., 6(1-2), January-July 1962: 1-7.

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118A Singh, T., "Administrative Assumptions in the Five-Year Plans," Ind. J. Publ. Adm., 9(3), July-September 1963: 336-343.

1.021 Each five-year plan has embobied a careful statement on
administrative problems. Thus, the First Plan dealt with premises
3.07 of democracy concerning the executive-public service roles, suggested
strengthening of the administrative structure and offered
7.03 suggestions regarding district administrative developments. The
Second Plan reviewed general aspects of reform, but was principally
7.231 concerned with village, block and district development, and the
democratization of district administration. In the Third Plan, the accent shifted to management, operational efficiency, and adequacy of planning. The experience of the last two years shows that in its structure, functioning and capacity to meet the needs of rapid development, the distance which the administration has to catch up may in fact be increasing. This has stemmed from an inadequate realization of the depth and complexity of the administrative implications of planned development; many of the relationships and processes implicit in this situation are not yet sufficiently clear. A marked strengthening of the planning and administrative machinery at State level is now essential if the wide responsibilities falling to state government -- as a consequence of the successive Plans -- are to be discharged effectively and efficiently.

118B Bhojwani, N. K., "Training of Public Servants in a Developing Economy," Ind. J. Publ. Adm., 7(4), October-December 1961: 447-473.

1.021 The benefits of experience are no substitute or excuse for lack
of training in the public services and the university liberal education
6.06 and the probationary training are no longer enough for the
civil servants of a changing state. Business management circles are
7.03 far more advanced in their acceptance of the idea of training than
are the public services. This essay outlines a scheme which extends the idea of liberal education to the idea of a "liberal education". The material that will be presented to public servants will consist of (1) Organisation and Organisational Relationships; (2) Communication and Administration; (3) The Human Factor in Administration; (4) Developmental Administration; (5) Administration and the Public; (6) The Challenge of Change; (7) Authority and Leadership, and (8) Case Studies. A detailed account is given of the purpose, content, and scope of each subject.

118C Sen, S. R., "Planning Machinery in India," Ind. J. Publ. Admin., 7(3), July-September 1961: 215-235.

1.021 The setting up of the Planning Commission in 1950, following the coming into force of the Union Constitution and the Directive
3.07 Principles of State Policy, was the first and most important step taken in economic planning, and continues to be the core of Indian
7.03 planning machinery. The procedure of planning, the role of the Commission and its constitution and officials are described, as are
7.231 the Working Groups and the Advisory Bodies set up by the Commission, and the associated bodies with which it has to work. A Research Programs Committee performs tasks essential to planning. The National Development Council keeps a watch over the National Plan and ensures uniformity of approach and unanimity in the working. In the states, planning departments operate directly under the Chief Minister, and the procedure of planning goes right down to district and village levels. The machinery seems diffused and complex, but the nature of the country and its economy has necessitated the development of such decentralization. The ultimate picture will be a network of planning units in the villages and enterprises, coordinated at successively higher levels by appropriate planning organizations, which are all ultimately centered upon the Planning Commission. Toward this ultimate stage much progress has already been made.

118D Sivaraman, B., "Administrative Problems of Land Reforms;" Ind. J. Pub. Adm., 7(3), July-September 1961: 364-370.

1.021 The article, after stating the immediate objectives of the land reform program, gives the administrative reactions to the
4.14 policy and the difficulties faced in the implementation and solutions which have been formulated with special reference to the
7.03 States where the "zamindari" system prevailed. The administrative problems faced during the course of abolition of "zamindari" and
7.231 taking over control of communal land, etc. are mainly legal difficulties, whereas in the case of the imposition of a ceiling on holdings and distribution of surplus lands, the problem is one of vastness. It is pointed out that land reform administration is an extension of land revenue administration which, in most parts of the country, was confined to land revenue collections and some maintenance of land records. The impact on administration of the vast programs of land reforms in these areas has, therefore, been very large.

118E Dubhashi, P. R., "The Implications and Scope of Democratic Decentralization," Ind. J. Publ. Admin., 6(4), October-December 1960: 369-392.

1.021 7.14 7.21 There is a very close relationship between community development and democratic-decentralization which, in simpler terms, is "free popular management of local affairs". Is is in that spirit that decentralization has been established in three States of India (Rajasthan, Andhra-Pradesh, Mysore) with a Panchayat at the village level, a Panchayat Samiti at the block level and a Zila Parishad at the district level. As in most western countries, the commune or rather the Indian village community has been chosen as the basic unit of self-government, while the block is a more arbitrary unit of planning and development with less constant characteristics. Both levels are allocated similar responsibilities and the division of functions between them is on a jurisdictional basis, whereas the Zila Paridhad stands apart as a co-ordinating, supervising and advisory body. Panchayat members are elected in the three States: Panchayat Samitis, however, are not fully elected bodies: part of their members are co-opted and this system involves risks of tensions, patronage or other kinds of questionable behavior. As for the Zila Parishads, they consist of all the chairmen of Panchayat Samitis. A number of measures have been taken to ensure a democratic functioning of these local institutions for the working of which the committee system has been adopted. Their respective autonomy is relative and controls of two types are envisaged: by the bigger local body over the affairs of the smaller body and by state governments or their outpost agents over the entire system of local government. Such controls are indispensible due to the economic and social conditions in the context of planned and rapid development required to quicken the "take off" of the Indian economy.

118F Caldwell, L. K., "Education and Training for Public Administration: Some Conte porary Trends," Ind. J. Publ. Admin., 5(3), July-September 1959: 261-273.

6.06 7.07 The responsibility of public bureaucracies is universal, and the public service calls for training. International technical assistance has added to the understanding of the administrative process and has influenced university teaching. Since the war there have been significant developments in many countries. Public administration societies have encouraged in-service training. Prevalent contemporary trends may increase proficiency and the sense of responsibility. Conflicts amongst administrative agencies frequently arise from incompatibility of the value commitments. The search for consensus in democratic governments is considered to be the task of politicians. But as government activity grows, the more does the responsibility of the public administrator become a pressing concern.

118G Narain, I., "A Fundamental Approach to the Administration of the Rural Community Development Program," Ind. J. Publ. Admin., 5(2), April-June 1959: 153-162; 5(3), July-September 1959: 274-292.

1.021 5.08 7.03 The subject can be approached by examining the meaning of the terms used. Community development is thought of in terms of villages. Villages are composed of homogeneous groups of people among whom any barriers are artificial. A community implies integrated corporate life. Development is a conscious change for the better, and is multi-purpose. This makes community development a gigantic affair. A program stands for a scheme with distinct objectives, a plan of action, and directions on operative details. The Government must sponsor the community development program. The objectives must be clearly defined, practical and flexible. There must be no hurry, or there will be a race for paper accomplishment which will not take the people with it nor encourage self-help. A Bureau of Rural Statistics is a basic requisite. All schemes should be knit together to form an integrated process, and the tempo should be even. The people's participation should be secured through local popularly elected bodies rather than through ad hoc bodies. In administration the educative purposes of the program must always be remembered. Since the ultimate object is to bring about self-sufficient self-government, the official's role is to guide rather than, himself, to administer, although in the initial stages he has to take initiative. The administrative program should be entrusted to an elective local institution which should have fully autonomous statutory status. To each local body the Government should attach an advisory council of officials. The training of officials should be practical, giving them a grasp of rural problems and emphasizing that their functions will be to exercise democratic leadership.

119A **Raval, Indubhai B., "Sociology of Tribal Economic Development,"** Ind. J. Soc. Wk., 25(1), April 1964: 43-51.

To assess the three-year impact on the Bhil tribe of a community development project, in 1959, a socio-economic survey of 459 families was conducted. The survey revealed that during the three-year period conditions of the Bhil tribe improved; in 1954, literacy was 1% and per-capita income per annum was Rs.44, which increased in 1958-1959 to 9% and Rs.101 respectively. Total wealth per family increased by 162%. Construction of houses per year averaged 26 in 1956-1959 against 6 in 1900-1955. The area under irrigation and agricultural production increased by 53 and 36.3% respectively. Two serious problems of the Bhil economy face the administrator: (1) social implications of deficit financing; and (2) low returns of financial investments. These may prove fatal to the tribal economy and cause a setback to tribal enthusiasm for economic development and social change, if not kept under control.

119B Asirvathan, E., "Social Changes in India," Ind. J. Soc. Wk., 21(2), September 1960: 123-130.

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As social change is necessary for survival and progress, a philosophy of social change is indispensable. This philosophy should be teleological, i.e., a combination of utilitarianism and idealism should be practiced in such national circumstances as longevity of life with economic decency (rural industrialization creates a "pauper mentality" at present), individual freedom of expression (until recently, considered the perogative of the educated class), and "mutual aid" (to be better internationalists). Stress on social change is needed now in: (1 social and educational inter-marriageability, (2) prevention of new privileged classes, (3) equality of men and women, (4) economic quality in wages and rents, (5) cooperative farming, and (6) birth control methods. With any social change there must be corresponding moral change to implement legislative and administrative changes. The "socialist pattern of society is an excellent ideal," but India is today not worthy of it -- initiative and enthusiasm are lacking in the people, and the government over-legislates and under-administrates. We need changes in the above mentioned areas; their fulfillment depends on the moral quality of individual and national character.

119C Chopde, S. R., and W. B. Rahudkar, "Characteristics Attributing to the Success of Village-Level Workers," Ind. J. Soc. Wk., 21(1), June 1960: 67-73.

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The authors feel that no elaborate study has been undertaken to estimate the various personality characteristics which predetermine the effectiveness of village-level workers. The article reviews the recommendations of the various committees and surveys the literature on the subject to find out the factors responsible for the effectiveness of extension workers. It has been found from experience that University graduates have on the whole not proved a success as village-level workers. The essential quality needed for success as a village-level worker is that he should love a village background.

119D Morrison, W. A., "Family Planning Attitude Prediction, the Social Worker and the Villager," Ind. J. Soc. Wk., 20(3), December 1959: 137-156.

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The author, who visited India in 1952 as a Fullbright scholar to study the rural social changes in an Indian village, deals with the attitudes of the villager towards family planning. He avers that all efforts to persuade the people to accept the known methods of contraception against their volition will be wasted unless the propaganda used is sufficiently well designed and presented to reach and to be meaningful to them. For creating a favorable climate for family planning, illiteracy should be effaced and a general standard of education raised.

120A Hildebrand, George H., "The New Economic Environment of the United States and its Meaning," Indust. Lab. Rel. R., 16 (4), July 1963: 523-538.

1.06 A broad assessment of the condition of the United States
economy today. The United States economy is in serious difficulty
3.01 with excessive and chronic unemployment, slow growth, a latent propensity for inflation, and persistent excess of international payments over receipts. The economy is characterized by great technological advances, a shift to services, and against blue-collar jobs (40% of non-agricultural labor was in blue-collar jobs, while 60% was in white-collar and service occupations, in 1961), an increasing impact of government on growth (from 1929 to 1961), government's share of non-agricultural employment jumped from 10% to 16.2%; direct taxes took $70.6 billion of personal and corporate income, in 1961, a lagging rate of instrumental investments, and an unfavorable international balance of payments, since 1950. Implications of this new economic environment are that growth of output will probably be 2.5% to 3%, the cost-price problem will remain acute, the unemployment rate will be over 4%, and perhaps over 5%, total demand for products will continue to grow slowly, and potential non-inflationary full-employment supply will also lag. A major tax reform is needed to break out of this condition, to encourage both consumption and investment, a substantial cut in the federal profits tax. It is imperative that the rate of technological change be accelerated. Greater efficiency must be obtained from the service factor of the economy. If productivity does not rise, in face of competition from other countries, prices cannot be raised, any wage boost will not be able to be passed on, and management will be likely to grant an increase.

Propositions

No propositions; economic analysis of the present state of the American economy.

120B Whyte, William F., "Culture, Industrial Relations, and Economic Development: The Case of Peru," Indust. Lab. Rel. R., 16 (4), July 1963: 583-594.

1.031 First report of a series of studies carried out in Peru,
June 1961 through August 1962. The data here reported are from
3.15 a questionnaire survey (multiple choice questions) of high school
seniors in Lima and six provincial cities, covering 29 schools,
7.13 both private and public. Questionnaires were administered in the

6.15 classrooms. For this article the analysis is limited to Lima (N= 392, 3 public schools, N= 376, 9 private schools). The questionnaire is based in part on the Cornell Values Study and on studies of family relations of U. Bronfenbrenner and E. Devereaux. The article reports conclusions on three topics: (1) It measures the extreme degree of rejection of manual labor found even among boys being trained to be skilled workers. (2) It shows that the level of faith in people is much lower than that found in the United States. This makes for centralization of authority, problems in interdepartmental coordination, and difficulties in resolving labor disputes. (3) It shows that the boys of the most elite private schools are much more likely than public school boys to choose careers in industry, but have a much lower level of motivation to work hard, to do independent work, and to depend on their own efforts for advancement. Such differences by socio-economic scales are far greater than those generally found in the United States.

Propositions

3.02 (1) The probability of economic development will be increased if a society's cultural values are favorable to economic activity.
5.122 (P. 583.)

Evidence: Unsubstantiated assumption.

3.02 (2) The probability of economic development will be decreased if those individuals who exert effort and apply their abilities
5.111 are not those who are rewarded by the system. (P. 592.)

Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

120C Windmuller, John P., "External Influences on Labor Organizations in Underdeveloped Countries," Indust. Lab. Rel. R., 16 (4), July 1963: 559-573.

3.10 The labor organizations of underdeveloped countries are subject to a variety of external forces seeking competitively to mold them
5.02 and to guide and influence their development and outlook. These external forces include international labor organizations, national
7.08 labor organizations, governments, and intergovernmental agencies. Goals which are common to the external forces may be viewed analytically as including the propagation of a model of trade unionism, shaping the ideological orientation of labor organizations, and raising the level of their technical proficiency. Prospects for achieving the first and second goals seem limited, but the third is within the realm of possibilities.

Propositions

No propositions.

120D Rimmer, D., "The New Industrial Relations in Ghana," Indust. Lab. Rel. R., 14 (2), January 1961: 206-226.

1.014 Among a number of the newly-independent nations that have emerged from their former colonial status in the decades since
3.10 World War II, it is becoming increasingly apparent that Western forms of economic and social organization are being bent to the
7.04 service of the state. Because of their importance for rapid economic growth, as well as their significance as an instrument
7.08 of political power, trade unions are among the most important of the organizations which are being reshaped in the interest of national purpose. Such a development is taking place in Ghana: union membership is virtually compulsory in wage employment, only officially approved labour organizations may exist, and trade union structure and government are becoming highly centralized. The legislative developments by which these changes are being accomplished are described and analysed in this article.

Propositions

1.014 (1) The probability of an institutional form being adopted by a developing country will be decreased if traditional institutions
5.111 and values do not provide an appropriate environment. (P. 207.)
Evidence: Historical analysis of industrial relations in
5.112 Ghana.

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120E Neufeld, M.F., "The Inevitability of Political Unionism in Underdeveloped Countries: Italy, the Exemplar," Indust. Lab. Rel. R., 13 (3), April 1960: 363-386.

1.06 Italy, like many other countries marked by political and economic underdevelopment, has turned to nationalism, scientific
3.10 agriculture, and mechanized industry in order to free herself of anarchic rule and economic backwardness. It is in this context,
7.08 therefore, that Italy has had such difficulty in setting up lasting strong and free labour unions, and at the same time in upholding and extending democratic institutions. Before 1860, popular

willingness to accept good and evil without protestation, made the nascent Italian labour movement resemble the friendly societies established in England in the early eighteenth century. Only after Mazzini's death did the Italians discover that national political freedom did not lead to freedom from want; until World War I, Italian trade unionism was characterized by anarchist tendencies. One novelty, however, which set the Italian movement apart from other European movements, was the organization of the Northern Italian peasants into unions. The General Confederation of Labour, never fully freed from socialist and syndicalist doctrines, achieved unparalleled size and force in 1919. Politically divided internally, it collapsed under fascist pressure. Renascent after the fall of Mussolini, the CGIL rose to new heights, only to be politically divided once more in 1948, and consequently weakened. In 1960, the three principal confederations appear insolvent, thwarted as bargaining agents, and unable to overcome the political divisions which cause their weakness.

Propositions

No propositions; historical treatment of trade unions in Italy.

✓ 121A Chebil, M., "Evolution of Land Tenure in Tunisia in Relation to Agricultural Development Programs," Inform Ld. Reform Ld. Settlement Co-op., 2, 1965: 12-24.

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An account is given of some of the radical land reforms introduced in Tunisia since independence and of their effects so far. The reforms, which seek to adapt the land-holding structure to the requirements of the national economic development plan, have four main aims: (1) to abolish those archaic systems of tenure which are incompatible with the country's current economic evolution and independent political status; (2) to re-organize the land-tenure practices and limit the extent of property in public irrigated zones; (3) to encourage intensive cultivation practices and limit the extent of property in public irrigated zones; and (4) to reform agriculture structurally by encouraging collective farming and diversified cropping.

121B El Ghonemy, M. R., "The Development of Tribal Lands and Settlements in Libya," Inf. Ld. Reform Ld. Settlement Co-op., 1, 1965: 20-31.

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In 1963 the National Agricultural Settlement Authority was established as an autonomous government agency for developing and resettling farms formerly established by the Italian Administration (Ente-farms); reforming the communal ownership of tribal lands outside the Ente-farms by establishing settled farming in areas suitable for individually owned economic farms; reclaiming, developing and distributing state-owned land; improved small holdings and organizing co-operative societies for the benefit of small farmers. The main difficulties in carrying out this program arise from the total dependence of agriculture on rainfall, springs and wells in the absence of rivers and the need to convert a nomad farming system into a settled one. Experience, however, has shown that nomads and semi-nomads will become settled farmers provided physical, economic and social factors permit them to do so. The FAO project for the development of tribal lands and settlements, implementing the above-mentioned aims, was initiated in 1962. At first it covered the province of Cyrenaica but was later extended to cover the whole country. Surveys have so far been made on: natural and human resources, soil, water resources and social conditions. A cadastral survey and land registration were made in conjunction with the FAO project. Settlement areas are appraised and proposals made for their development. The training of local staff, and especially the establishment of a national training center, is emphasized and the legal and administrative aspects of the National Agricultural Settlement Authority are outlined.

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122A Duckwitz, G.F., "The Project Will Help Win Battle on the Agricultural Front," Intensive Agric., 2(2), April 1964: 3.

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122B Singh, M. P., "Three Years of Package Program," Intensive Agric., 2(9-10), November-December 1964: 8-9.

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122C Subramaniam, C., "The "Package" Approach -- The Only Answer to Food Problems," Intensive Agric., 2(9-10), November-December 1964: 2.

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123A Furtado, C., "Political Obstacles to Economic Growth in Brazil," Int. Aff., 41(2), April 1965: 252-266.

1.032 Brazil has so far failed to formulate a consistent policy of
development. No economic system fit for expansion exists and
5.11 existing economic and social structures need to be rebuilt first.
The effects of the lack of a policy to guide the process of indus-
7.231 trialization are felt today. Brazil's economic system and social structure of 1930 differed little from that in the 19th century. Participation in the electoral process comprised 1% of the population, and those in power had the means to maintain themselves there. Brazil was an oligarchic republic on a seignorial basis. The coffee-growing section wielded power for the first forty years of the Republic. A change in the social structure took place in the 20th century, mainly apparent in rapid urbanization and a consequent change in the political center of gravity. Yet no independent industrial leadership emerged. The slowness of progress towards the modernization of Brazil's political system is due to this lack of a politically active class. The conduct of government is today often paralysed by the tension between the two power centers, the executive authority, and the old oligarchy which controls Congress. The unorganizad mass of the urban population represents the new decisive factor in the Brazilian political struggle. Their only opportunity to take part in the political process is at election times, and the resulting conflict between the requirements of constitutional government and the mandate of the public will has been the basis of Brazil's political instability. A mass society has emerged prematurely -- the struggle for power between the populist leaders and the traditional ruling class is the crux of the political conflict which thwarts all attempts at coherent planning. The national aspiration for development remains a latent force because Brazil has not yet succeeded in creating an institutional system which would enable political power to give effect to it.

123B Hunter, G., "Independence and Development. Some Comparisons Between Tropical Africa and South-East Asia," Int. Aff., 40(1), January 1964: 47-59.

1.01 Comparisons between Tropical Africa and South-East Asia today
are concerned with the success and failure of independent political
1.02 growth and of independent economic endeavor in each country, and
with similarities and differences between them. The two processes
5.06 cannot be considered separately. South-East Asian countries have
a longer existence as national unities than the modern countries
6.06 of Tropical Africa, and in some areas a longer political experience
and differentiation. There is greater solidarity and sophistica-
6.07 tion of political and national feeling African societies have less
affinities to the political sequences of Eurasis. With less pre-
existing political maturity most African states moved straight into

the hands of "new men". Many African countries have been able to achieve full independence without losing balance, and Africa may be in a better shape for the long-distance race which lies ahead. In all countries, African and Asian, the agricultural problem is the social and economic problem which dwarfs all others. In peasant agriculture Africa is ahead of Asia, though the main advances go back to the colonial administration. The tradition of service to the rural population survives today in Malaya. Will it survive in Africa? Can it develop in Asia? The strongest contrast between African and South-East Asian societies lies in their volume of secondary and higher education: in Africa great shortages of graduates and technicians and secondary school teachers, in Asia growing unemployment among graduates. Africa should learn from Asia here. What is needed in both is an effort to understand the real position of each country and to devise targets for development in each sphere which take account of the old values.

123C Macfarquhar, R., "The Chinese Model and the Underdeveloped World," Int. Aff., 39(3), July 1963: 372-385.

1.230 The most interesting aspect of the Chinese model for other underdeveloped countries is the motive power behind her economic
3.15 policies. It consists of leadership and organization. The key problem is how to maintain a substratum of stability which will
7.231 ensure orderly and speedy change. A national leader respected by his countrymen is required, as is an efficient body of trained and honest administrators. Yet the government should be in the hands of a group, not solely in those of a leader. In organization non-Communist Asians do not rival China. The Chinese top leadership exhibited until recently a high degree of cohesion, a good record compared with Soviet Russia and her Asian neighbors. The main reason is Mao's unchallengeable position: he is both Lenin and Stalin. Another reason is the vision, shared by all leaders, of what China's goals should be. Also, the Chinese leadership worked and fought together for many years before coming to power. The recent disruption of this cohesion can only be explained by the depth of the crisis brought on by the Great Leap Forward. Yet the change of line has not shattered the regime's top leadership. The emphasis on unity is the one non-historical factor underlying the cohesion of the Chinese leadership and therefore the one factor that can be imitated elsewhere. Otherwise China cannot be a model for any other country.

123D Karpat, K. H., "Recent Political Developments in Turkey and Their Social Background," Int. Aff., 38(3), July 1962: 304-323.

1.233 The military coup of 1960 ousted the Democratic Party Government, the first civilian government ever directly elected by the
7.11 Turkish people, and the military ruled the country until they handed over to a civilian government in November 1961. The coup was justified as the one course left open to the Army, the only group with moral integrity, to save democracy and Ataturk's reforms. The Democrats had been in power since 1950. Supported by the mass of the population, they abolished the supremacy of the intelligentsia-bureaucracy, established a multi-party system and initiated a policy of economic development -- for the first time in the Middle East. But the Democrats who started by trying to change the function of the State ended by undermining the form and structure of government and failed to provide adequate leadership. But basically the party struggle in Turkey was a conflict caused by social growth and restratification. This change in social structure eventually made the military reinstate a civilian government. Turkey's chief political difficulty arises from the lack of definition of the State's position vis-a-vis the individual and society at large. Today Turkey appears to have begun to tackle the problems of adjusting Ataturk's political structure to present social needs. The future of Turkey lies in the hands of the ordinary man.

123E Newman, K. J., "The Constitutional Evolution of Pakistan," Int. Aff. 38(3), July 1962: 353-364.

1.022 The constitution-makers in Pakistan have had to face many difficulties, e. g., the geographical division of the country and
7.02 the religious issue. Though the National Parliament at Karachi has throughout presented a high standard of parliamentary debate and
7.03 practice, a rift between Executive and Legislature has troubled the new state from the start. The new regime in power now governs with-
7.11 out the support of political parties; it can claim some positive achievements -- East Pakistan has for the first time achieved some measure of autonomy, West Pakistan has had some agricultural reforms. Its new Constitution, however, announeed in March 1962, bears the hallmark of one devised by the Executive, to be imposed through the Executive and for the Executive. It is to be hoped that Pakistan with her politically wide-awake intelligentsia may gradually give a more tolerant content ot its rigid authoritarian form. The Westminister system of parliamentary government has not failed in Pakistan; it is provincialism rather than Parliament that has failed. Democracy perished in 1958 as a result of structural faults in the organization of the political parties.

123F Pendle, G., "Argentina: The Past Behind the Present," Int. Aff., 38(4), October 1962: 494-500.

1.033 Seven years after Peron's overthrow Argentina is still not an orthodox parliamentary democracy. The country still is "a conglomeration rather than a community", without integral collective life. Argentina has been divided by history and geography. The central theme of political development in Argentina has been the conflict between imported democratic ideas and the local tradition of personal leadership -- caudillismo. Peron through his contribution to social and economic progress aggravated the fragmentation characteristic of Argentine society, and increased internal disunity. Peron's successors also prevented an integral collective life from coming into being. The past explains Argentinian behavior today. Yet Argentina remains the most highly developed nation in Latin America.

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123G Van Bilsen, A. A. J., "Some Aspects of the Congo Problem," Int. Aff., 38(1), January 1962: 41-51.

1.127 The independence of the Congo was prepared too late. With the first Congo Parliament elected for four years and a "Treaty of Friendship" with Belgium intended, a stable period was envisaged which was planned to end with a new Constitution and an educated African administration. Belgium definitely intended to maintain the unity of the Congo. The collapse of these reasonable plans came partly from the total absence of a Congolese national consciousness. Each region is dominated by a single party and only a coalition of of these would and will, even now, give a stable National Government. The Katanga leaders were not "nationalists", they were closely linked with white interest groups. These groups favored independence of the province with direct contact with Brussels. This obvious trend in Katanga drove Mr. Lumumba to lose confidence in the United Nations and to look for help from the Soviet countries. The reaction to this threat again was to arm Katanga and to recruit white mercenaries. The United Nations, called in to save the external unity of the Congo, had to abandon their position of noninterference. Without it, the country would have been balkanized; with it, the political forces of the Congo still have an opportunity to unite in a compromise.

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123H Tinker, H., "Community Development: A New Philosopher's Stone?," Int. Aff., 37(3), July 1961: 309-322.

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The prime function of Community Development today is to generate initiative and self-help for the service of the village community. Does its introduction really conjure new attituees into life? Three case studies, examining the actual working of Community Development in Southeast Asia, seek to show the interplay of political and social forces which affect the theoretical application of its principles. Community Development is an attempt to marry western doctrines of behavior to an idealized notion of Asian village society. No new synthesis predominantly Asian emerged when Asian governments took over the dogma. In the Philippines and Thailand the copy-book methodology has been retained, leading to disharmonies between theory and practice. In Malaya the entire theory of mutual help has been abandoned. The central problem "to make people want what they need and do what they want" still remains to be solved.

123I Vatikiotis, P. J., "Dilemmas of Political Leadership in the Arab Middle East: The Case of the UAR," Int. Aff., 37(2), April 1961: 189-202.

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The relationship between the new military leadership in the United Arab Republic which claims a desire to depart from tradition in national development and the Islamic religious-traditional background of society should be a primary consideration in an analysis of the new leadership. The traditional-religious element is important to the study of the army in politics. The army needs to appeal to the "Islamic Myth" of communal identity in order to achieve a new formula to supersede it. It also serves as an effective arm of foreign policy. But the crisis created by the clash between secular nationalism and Islamic fundamental particularism is still unresolved. To provide a practical meaning for Arabism is a major political task of the military regime in the United Arab Republic. And for the foreseeable future Arabism will remain intricately connected with Islam. Islam without Arabism has been and is possible, but the question is, can there be Arabism without Islam?

123J Carrington, C. E., "Frontiers in Africa," Int. Aff., 36(4), October 1960: 424-439.

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Natural and geographical zones, ethnic or cultural frontiers in Africa -- briefly outlined in this article -- bear little relation to political frontiers except for the frontier between French and English-speaking administrations. Self-determination is meaningless

in Africa. There are no struggling nations, only political parties struggling for power in areas delimited by the partition of Africa. Its history has not yet been written. The settlement of the south-western frontier of the Congo State is one example of the way Africa was partitioned. All frontier-making in Africa has depended on access to the sea. The grouping of new states will have to follow the economic pattern. Railway lines will reshape the map of Africa.

123K Carter, G. M., "Multi-Racialism in Africa," Int. Aff., 36(4), October 1960: 457-463.

1.01 Multi-racialism is the existence within a territory of racial groups with separate identities. This situation must be either
5.064 explosive or constructive. In Africa one finds examples of both. The best example of co-operation between Africans and Europeans,
7.15 resting on mutual confidence, is Tanganyika, though there are others. In Kenya, Rhodesia, the Belgian Congo and South Africa the situation is far more complex and difficult. In the latter two it has moved in diametrically opposite directions in the last few months: abdiction of authority in one, tightening of control in the other. In South Africa for the first time an African group has emerged as intransigent in their demands as the Nationalist Afrikaners are. South Africa's tragedy is that her resources are used to intensify the racial division rather than to reduce it. The lesson of the Congo is not to avoid concessions, but to make them early enough.

123L Chidzero, B. T. G., "African Nationalism in East and Central Africa," Int. Aff., 36(4), October 1960: 464-475.

1.01 The distinguishing characteristics of the multi-racial societies of East and Central Africa is the presence of a settled
5.064 European (and in some cases Asian) minority amidst an overwhelming African -- usually multi-tribal -- majority. The Europeans have
7.12 till now constituted the upper economic, social, and ruling class. African nationalism is the struggle for power between the dominant minority and the African majority. Before the European advent its basis was non-existent, it is largely negative, it rejects colonial rule, race discrimination and domination, its objective is majority rule and the equality of individuals. Naturally, nationalism takes different territories, but everywhere race discrimination is rejected; this is fundamental to the future of race relations in Africa. Political moderation is difficult in these circumstances; parties are hardly ever multi-racial. Whether victorious African nationalism will serve the cause of freedom and protect democratic

institutions is anyone's guess. Europeans must move towards supporting majority rule and hope to influence new African governments to deal fairly with minorities.

123M Harris, C. C., "Tanganyika Today. I. The Background," Int. Aff., 36(1), January 1960: 35-43.

1.122 There is no basic clash between the interests of the main communities in Tanganyika. Self-government is sure to come the problem is timing, i.e., keeping constitutional development in step with economic development. The practical problems are more important than the constitutional ones. Tanganyika is not wealthy, has little industry, a poor distribution of rainfall, poor soil, bad communications. Education is a great problem. There is a lack of urban employment. Local government, though developing fast, needs further strengthening. A basic respect for established government exists, owing partly to the autocratic historical background. The parochial tribalism which still exists may make development difficult, but may also lead to healthy competition.

123N Mair, L. P., "Social Change in Africa," Int. Aff., 36(4), October 1960: 447-456.

1.01 Africans today, in rejecting their European rulers, do not reject the techniques of production and of government brought to
3.08 them by those rulers; they assert African control over them. Africa is passing through a process of change from small-scale to large-
5.06 scale organization, economic and political; generalizations are impossible in Africa, but throughout Africa south of the Sahara production for exchange was less important than production for subsistence. It has, however, become part of a world system of production for exchange through incorporation in the political systems of European nations. The consequent widening of the scale of social relationships has had great effects on African society. The growth of towns produces a modern African urban society, and only there have the unifying forces of the modern political and economic systems had their effect. In all Africa local solidarity remains strong because so many local groups have until recently been autonomous political units. The gulf between literate and illiterate is deep and there are great difficulties of staffing public services and industry. The whole political system is superimposed on smaller-scale politics. Perhaps the new rulers cannot yet afford tolerance of opposition, they must be authoritarian enough to maintain stability and yet not so oppressive as to provoke resistance.

1230 Nyerere, J., "Tanganyika Today. II. The Nationalist View," Int. Aff., 36(1), January 1960: 43-47.

1.122 7.11 7.22 Tanganyika's main problem is that it is an artificial country which has had to learn to think as a nation. Tribal rulers are another problem, but they are behind the Nationalist movement in the demand for self-government. Tanganyika's racial problem has been nearly completely solved by placing it in the category of multi-racial countries. Her Constitution is the best constitution the Colonial Office has ever devised. The country wants independence and responsible government -- and wants it now. The Colonial Office should give the Tanganyikans the chance to show that it is possible to establish democracy in spite of racial problems.

123P Whitehead, E., "Southern Rhodesia," Int. Aff., 36(2), April 1960: 188-196.

1.130 3.02 4.11 6.14 Southern Rhodesia has had her own industrial revolution. Since the war probably Southern Rhodesia has experienced the most rapid expansion of any country in the world. Industrialization is her means of attaining a higher standard of living. But attempts at bringing African agriculture to a higher standard have also been successfully made. Urban expansion is expected and prepared for. Local government is for the first time being developed in the African area. Expansion of education is attempted. Labor legislation has been altered to meet the new needs, removing all racial discrimination. The aim is that everyone born in Rhodesia, regardless of race or color, should be called a good Rhodesian.

124A Stern, R. M., "Policies for Trade and Development," Int. Conciliation, 527, March 1960: 307-372.

3.01 The relationship between trade and development is a matter for international economic concern, but approaches to the problem vary in emphasis. To what extent can and should trade be manipulated to serve as a primary instrument for development? On what financial and commercial measures should policies for trade and development be concentrated? How effective can institutional mechanisms be in directing and giving impetus to the flow of international trade? It would seem that undue reliance should not be placed on trade to solve growth problems, and one should be skeptical of measures directed to specific trade problems. There is a danger in confusing short-term and long-term objectives; priority should be given to trade liberalization and increased marked access for the exports of developing countries. The role of the developing countries themselves in the ordering of their domestic policies is a critical one.

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124B Papanek, G. F., "Framing a Development Program," Int. Conciliation. 527, March 1960: 307-372.

3.07 This study examines the development of criteria that will guide decisions on the composition of development and technical assistance programs, the utility of such criteria and the difficulties inherent in their use and the possibility of progress in both respects. The questions that are asked concern the determination of a given country's development program; the factors and criteria relevant in composing a technical assistance program given its development program; the criteria that might be applicable in the international allocation of technical and development assistance and the respective roles of recipient countries and donor agencies in fixing the composition of both technical assistance and development programs. The desirable extent of planning is not discussed nor is any distinction made between government and private projects.

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125A Belshaw, Cyril S., "Evaluation of Technical Assistance as a Contribution to Development," Int. Devel. Rev., 8(2) June 1966: 2-6 and 23.

3.113 The nature of evaluation depends entirely upon the purposes of the evaluation, and so far very few attempts have been systematically concerned with the effects of technical assistance upon the development of a country as a working system. The author sets forth a number of propositions which, in his view, are closely linked with economic development: (1) a technical assistance project contributes to development if the program of which it is a part permanently alters the effective demand schedule, or consumption pattern, of the country in such a way that an increased level of "satisfaction" is achieved, and the gap between effective demand is narrowed; (2) a technical assistance program contributes to development if the program of which it is a part increases the satisfaction of wants in such a way that other unsatisfied wants, some of which may be new, alter this position in the potential demand schedule to such an extent that they become goals of further action; (3) a project will contribute to development if it assists a program to increase the range of commodities produced or to remove bottlenecks in the system of resource exploitation and production, thus liberating further productive forces; (4) a project will contribute to development when technical assistance contributes to an increased division of labor, provided that this contributes optionally to production or to direct satisfaction of wants; (5) the rate of innovation is associated with the size of the pool of relevant ideas and information and to the ability of the potential innovators to question, observe, generalize and apply knowledge; (6) an increase in the velocity of circulation of ideas and information may be deemed to increase the effective size of the pool of ideas; (7) a project will contribute if it assists in the creation of institutions which produce skills and knowledge, the organization of production and services, the organization of units of public administration, the organization of institutions to remedy societal ills which are frictional to the operation of the system; (8) if the operation of organizations is improved so that their contribution to the over-all social system improves, they will be changed and developed and will be part of a development of the social system.

125B Hapgood, D., "Rural Animation in Senegal," Int. Devel. Rev., 6(3), 1964: 15-18.

4.18 The technique of "rural animation" was evolved by a small international (largely French) organization, l'Institut de Recherche

5.12 et Application des Methodes de Developpement (IRAM), as a means of getting illiterate, traditional societies to change their attitudes towards new or improved institutions within the social environment, and it is based on IRAM's contention that peasants in traditional societies will not change their methods until they change their wider attitudes towards life and society. Already tested with some success in Morocco, the technique is now under its most extensive trial in Senegal where some 6,000 natives (including 900 women) from 1,500 villages have gone through animation training. The process of animation proceeds with the selection of a group of villages, similar in race, language and resources, and in which there is the possibility of quick though modest progress. The director assigned to the particular project must get to know his area and gain the confidence of the inhabitants. Several young men from each village are invited (i.e., selected by the villagers themselves) to learn things that will be to the good of the community as a whole. The director then takes these men to the Center d'Animation for three weeks' elementary education related to their own economic and social changes where they discuss what they have learned in the way of simple irrigation, drainage, or tillage techniques, after which the village may decide (and the decision must be entirely internal) to undertake slight changes in their traditional techniques. Change is obviously not going to be welcomes for its own sake; therefore, animation is restricted to areas where rapidly visible progress is possible. In Senegal, animation has concentrated its main efforts to date on organizing human investment and co-operatives, and human investment programs to build roads and small irrigation works have been attempted with varying success. One notable success, the building of a road from a fishing village to a highway, was due to the fishermen's clear realization that there was a market for their fish if only they could get it to the highway. The failures have been largely due to stage incompetence or over-ambitious schemes rather than to the unsuitability of the "animated" peasants. Local administrators, for instance, may oppose honest co-operatives because they have a stake in exploitation of the farmers; others simply find life easier if the villagers are docile rather than demanding. Thus, though the technique of rural anumation is highly promising, certain political barriers higher up on the social scale must be broken, and in many of the developing countries such as Senegal the basic decision rests with the ruling elites.

125C Singer, H. W., "International Aid for Economic Development: Problems and Tendencies," Int. Develop. Rev., 6(1), March 1964: 16-21.

3.17 Despite recent growth and further growth potential, aid is still a junior partner of trade in total amount. It is not surprising that the idea of connecting aid and trade in a systematic fashion is becoming more prominent. United Nation projection of the "trade gap" and schemes of compensatory financing designed to compensate underdeveloped countries for unforseen and extraneous falls in their export proceeds are discussed. Problems of aid measurement which have become increasingly important with the growth of soft forms of lending are considered. The method of "present discounted value" is advocated as being most suitable. Problems involved in tied vs. untied aid and international coordination of aid policies are also examined. The article concludes with a discussion of program aid vs. project aid, emphasizing the fallacious nature of much of the "project approach," and advocates the international consortium technique as a helpful approach.

125D Bridger, G. A., "The Allocation of Agricultural Resources in Developing Countries," Int. Devel. Rev., 5(4), 1963: 27-29.

4.06
4.07 An attempt is made to rationalize a whole series of value judgments, to harmonize them and put them into economic perspective by a series of isolated commodity judgements which are then summed up on a point basis so as to reach a verdict about the allocation of resources which cannot be achieved beforehand. The system comprises four steps: (1) decides the principles of development (import replacement, increased export, diversification of the economy, etc.) giving them a weight in order to build up a point system for the commodities (usually a total of 10 points). (2) examines the commodities produced or potentially producible, in order to ascertain that they fit in with the development principles. In vertical order each principle is examined in turn and the relative importance of the commodities established with respect to it. The sum of all these decisions is expressed in totals which give the order of priorities. (3) decides what measures or project should be used to develop the individual products. (4) converts the percentages, gained at (3), into funds allocated approximately in accordance with priorities established. This simple system for rationalizing projects and fitting them into a development plan has been successfully used twice on different continents; it is, however, only a first step and will need improvement.

125E Marcus, Edward, "The Role of Agriculture in Tropical African Development Planning," Int. Devel. Rev., 1(1), March 1963: 21-24.

1.01
4.01 This article deals with the current controversy in tropical Africa -- and, indeed, in every developing country -- that centers around the proportion of development expenditure to be allotted to agriculture. The author analyzes the objectives of investment in agriculture, which are: (1) expansion of export crops, (2) replacement of imports, (3) reduction of production costs, (4) absorption

on the land of additional population, (5) increase of food supplies for the growing urban area, (6), increase of raw materials for the industrializing sectors, and (7) release of labor, to be transferred to other sectors. The conclusions are: (1) agriculture should have a subordinate position in African development plans, (2) investment in agriculture is no longer an independent variable, but is intimately tied in with what is wanted for the other sectors, and (3) a gradually declining relative importance for the farmer.

125F Platt, William J., "Individuals: Neglected Elements in Economic Development Planning," Int. Devel. Rev., 5(3), September 1963: 16-20.

3.07 The concern of the article is to point out than in the last
analysis planning is for the greater well-being of individuals.
6.14 Hence its success requires that the planner keep this in mind to
secure their cooperation. The examples given derive from economic
planning, but relevant ones can also be found for educational
planning.

125G Wharton, C. R. Jr., "Economic Factors in Southeast Asian Agricultural Development." Int. Devel. Rev., 5(3), 1963· 13-16.

1.02 Five economic factors are emphasized as affecting present rates
of agricultural development in southeast Asia and as being critical
3.01 for future rates of growth: (1) economies which are dependent upon
one or two major export items, usually agricultural, (2) the pre-
4.01 ponderance among efforts of perennial crops with highly inelastic
supply characteristics, (3) the duality of smallholder and planta-
3.16 tion production with the accompanying issues of economies of scale,
(4) food deficit and food surplus areas with deficits likely to
4.14 increase under the impact of population explosions and the desire
for self-sufficiency, (5) the predominance of subsistence sectors
4.17 and farmers about whose economic behavior little is known.

125H Hill, F. F., Don Adams, and Roger Brittain, "Education; the Need for Constructive Ideas," Int. Devel. R., 4(4), December 1962: 4-12.

6.01 This article is a realistic appraisal of the influence which
imaginative educational expansion can potentially have on the devel-
6.14 opment process. The last section outlines an educational structure
adapted to existing resource shortages and making use of modern
methods.

125I Neff, Kenneth L., "Education and the Forces of Change," Int. Devel. Rev., 4(1), March 1962: 22-25.

1.02 This is a brief examination of the inappropriateness of southeast Asian cultures to development needs, as causes of the relative
6.01 ineffectiveness of education as a development agent.

126A Uzawa, H., "Optimum Technical Change in an Aggregative Model of Economic Growth," Int. Econ. Rev., 6 (1) 1965: 18-31.

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In this paper, a model of economic growth in which advancement in the state of technological knowledge is only achieved by engaging productive resources in the activities related to education, thus decreasing the current output of goods and services. The pattern of optimum allocation of scarce resources is fully analyzed for an aggregative model of economic growth of the Solow-Swan type. The economy is visualized as consisting of two productive factors, labor and capital, which are engaged either to produce a homogeneous output or to increase the labor-efficiency of labor in general. The current output is determined by the existing stock of capital and the quantity of labor engaged in materialistic production, while the rate of increase in labor efficiency is related to the fraction of labor engaged in the educational sector over the whole labor forces. Part of current output is accumulated as capital stock and the rest is instantaneously consumed. The pattern of optimum allocations of labor between the productive and educational sectors at each moment of time is fully analyzed for the case where the social welfare function is given as discounted sum of the stream of consumption per capita over time. It can be shown that there exists a critical value in the aggregative capital-labor ratio (with labor measured in terms of efficiency unit) such that if the initial capital-labor ratio is less than the critical ratio all current output is saved while a positive fraction of labor forces is engaged in the educational sector. If the initial capital-labor ratio exceeds the critical ratio, all current output is consumed until the critical ratio is attained.

126B Ken-ichi, Inada, "Economic Growth and Factor Substitution," Int. Econ. Rev., 5 (3), 1964: 318-327.

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The purpose of this paper is to propose an economic growth model in which two production factors, capital and labor, are substitutable ex ante, but not ex post. Some writers have previously studied models of the same type, but they were concerned only with the properties of the balanced growth path. If relative stability is not shown, these studies will not have important meaning. In fact, the existence of a balanced growth path is impossible in our model. Two cases are possible. One is secular stagnation and the other cyclical unemployment.

126C Kurz, Mordecai, "A Two-Sector Extension of Swan's Model of Economic Growth: The Case of No Technical Change," Int. Econ. Rev., 4 (1) 1963: 68-79.

3.01 Like Swan in his 1956 model of economic growth, the present extension specifies the production functions in the two sectors
3.02 to be log-linear, but not necessarily with the same parameters. This specification allows us to concentrate on paths of growth
3.03 which are not "Terminal Path" (defined to be a state in which all variables grow at constant proportional rates).
3.13 In considering first the optimal allocation of capital, it is shown that if the optimal allocation does not hold (initially) and capital mobility (between sectors) is not allowed, then new investments will flow into one sector only. This situation will be remedied in finite time, after which new investments will flow into both sectors.

Next, it is shown that when the economy is not on its terminal path the rate of growth of income is inversely related to the ratio of actual income level to the "Terminal Path" level.

As long as the population grows, the model is stable; but when investments take place in both sectors, both converge from below or both converge from above.

The valuation side of the economy is shown to be somehow paradoxical but, in general, both the movement of relative prices and the interest rate depend specifically on the inital capital stock and the relative output elasticities of capital in the two sectors.

Finally, it is shown that the choice of the savings ratio to equal relative capital share not only maximizes the stationary level of consumption per capita but also the rate of growth of consumption per capita when the economy is below its terminal path.

126D Phelps, Edmund S., "Substitution, Fixed Proportions, Growth and Distribution," Int. Econ. Rev., 4 (3),1963: 265-288.

3.01 This paper considers the determination of the rate of economic growth and the functional distribution of income in a model in
3.02 which the labor intensity of new "machines" is capable of being varied, while the labor intensity of every old machine is fixed
3.03 so that the only choice there is whether or not to operate the the machine.
3.05 Such a model introduces a new dimension to the connection between investment and the growth of productivity. An increase
3.10 of saving and investment lowers the labor intensity of new machines. Since a machine will be profitable to operate longer the
3.11 smaller is its labor intensity, the operating life of machines

will eventually increase. Up to a point, such an increase in the operating life of machines ("capital lengthening") will increase the productivity of the labor force over and above the effect of the increase in the number of machines per worker ("capital deepening"). It is shown that the longevity of capital is such as to maximize productivity when, in a steady growth equilibrium, the rate of interest equals the rate of growth or investment equals profits.

Another feature of the model is the dependence of labor's share in total product upon thrift (hence labor intensity), even though the production function exhibits unitary elasticity of substitution. Since labor's relative share of aggregate output is a weighted average of its relative share of the output of every machine and that share is normally higher at old machines than new, the average age of machines will affect aggregate shares. The average age will tend to be greater, and the share of wages in total output smaller, the thriftier is the economy.

127A Laguerre, Enrique, "The International Project at Patzcuaro," International House Quarterly, 16(3), Summer 1952: 158-162.

1.04 This article describes the operation of UNESCO's Latin American fundamental education center in Patzcuaro, Mexico.

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128A Healey, D. T., "Agricultural Economics in Some African Countries," Interna'tl. J. Agrarian Affairs, 4(4), June 1964: 250-286.

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128B Cairncross, A. K., "The Contribution of Foreign and Indigenous Capital to Economic Development," Interna'tl. J. Agrarian Affairs, 3(2), June 1961: 76-107.

3.01 A review of the past experiences in international capital flow
reveals essential differences in the present situation as compared
3.03 with what happened in the 19th century. Before 1914, international
investment was heavily concentrated in countries already showing
3.17 an advanced state of development and the great bulk of the savings
needed for growth and industrialization were generated inside each country. It is estimated that the current flow of international investment (including aid) amounts to 10 billion dollars which corresponds to a fivefold increase since 1913 and at the same time to the development of world trade. Great changes have taken place in the flow of capital to less-advanced countries which has increased out of proportion. A section of the paper is concerned with the theory of international capital flows which leaves many questions of current interest unanswered. With regard to agricultural development the contribution of investment lies in part in the provision of an external stimulus and in part in the expenditure of capital in agriculture itself. Historically speaking the stimulus was given by an increase in demand associated with an improvement in transport. The most obvious use of capital to assist agricultural development is in better communications between rural areas and urban markets. The paper concludes with a discussion on the ways in which capital inflow -- nowadays largely furnished by governments and international agencies and increasingly given as grants, soft loans and contributions towards technical assistance -- affects agriculture of less developed countries. Foreign borrowing in itself is not sufficient in achieving economic growth. It is justified only when injection of foreign capital permits a higher rate of domestic investment than domestic savings alone would permit, if the domestic capital market is so little developed as to present the financing of urgent development projects, and if it brings with it scarce productinn factors such as technical skills.

128C Kuznets, Simon, "Economic Growth and the Contribution of Agriculture: Notes on Measurement," Interna'tl. J. Agrarian Affairs, 3(2), June 1961: 56-75.

3.01 The author, in reviewing economic growth since the last 18th
century, distinguishes the aggregate, the structural and the
4.01 international aspects which, however, are clearly interrelated. He
then considers the contribution of agriculture to the economic
4.02 growth of a country. It must be kept in mind that what any sector of the country's economy does is not fully attributable or creditable to it but is contingent on what happens in the other sectors. The author then formulates algebraic equations for what he calls product contribution to the total net or gross product and to the growth of product per capita. If such analysis is applied to individual countries with a high rate of economic growth it would probably show a rapid decline in the proportional contribution of agriculture -- from a quarter or more of the growth of total product and a half or more of the growth of per caput product, to a few percentage points. A further section of the paper deals with the market contributions to economic growth which implies a diversification of structure and increased division of labor. Agriculture is purchasing some production items from other sectors at home or abroad and selling some if its products to purchase consumer goods from other sectors. This accounts for increased "marketization" of the agricultural production process. While the market contribution of agriculture to economic growth may be strategic in the early periods of growth it is likely to diminish in relative weight once growth has proceeded apace. The type of the trading partner and his growth-inducing power is another differentiating factor and has a decisive impact on growth inside and outside agriculture. Finally there is full discussion of a third type of contribution which the author calls factor contribution, i.e., a transfer of resources to other sectors. The resources being transferred are either capital or labor. In the case of the former two types of transfer may occur, taxation and lending, or the utilization of agricultural savings in the non-agricultural sectors. Transfer of labor is represented by internal migration out of the agricultural sector and may be interpreted as a transfer of capital invested in human beings. The same considerations apply to the international movement of labor which historically assisted a number of rapidly developing countries.

129A Fellows, Perry Augustus, "Urbanism: Engineering Trends in Ethiopia," Int. J. Comp. Sociol., 4 (2), September 1963: 162-177.

1.011 Urbanization is a process of change in the character of a community. It is a gradual net gain of amenities as well as of

5.09 population. Engineering comprises the technological disciplines of which the processes of urbanization are planned and carried out. Historical sources include international summit conferences, social and technical missions, and other events culminating in Sir Robert Napier's military-engineering invasion of Ethiopia. Ethiopia's emergence from isolation and obscurity was marked by the construction of a railroad and the location of a permanent capital city. Extension of the railroad, highway construction, beginning of the telephone and telegraph, and the initiation of an educational system were accomplished. Engineering depends on social purpose, which Emperor H. Selassie defines as "insuring and promoting the welfare of the people," and he says "there can be no (other) justification for any government."

Propositions

No propositions.

129B Mahapatra, L.K., "Socio-Cultural Changes in Rural and Tribal India," Int. J. of Comp. Sociol., 3 (2), December 1962: 254-261.

5.02 This is a brief analysis of the exogenic structural changes in the traditionally conservative rural and tribal communities of

5.06 India, under the impact of the colonial administration, capitalistic industrialism, and lately, under the aegis of a democratic Welfare State. During the last 150 years, the traditional handicraft and caste economy was largely replaced by a capitalistic, money economy which brought in commercialization of agriculture, established mechanized industries, extended facilities of rapid communications, and expanded trade. The traditional isolation and self-sufficiency of villages, and tribal communities decreased and the interdependence between them and urban centers was intensified. A class of rural intelligentsia came into its own as a result of Western-inspired education. Linear changes in the most important rural institutions (viz, caste, family, and community organization for self-government) have been traced. Forces of democratization, individualism, commercialization of status relationships, secularization, Westernization and "nationization" have tended to produce a "compromise formation" of culture, which is not quite like the trdditional, nor like the modern, rationalized culture of the West. Christianization of tribal peoples brought in Westernization, and also estrangement with heathen brethren, tribal or non-tribal. Provision of economic and political privileges by the democratic state has not only induced various tribal groups to sink their cultural differences and forge together, but also has encouraged some of them to halt their march toward assimilation with the general peasantry. Thus, by and large, tribal groups are tending toward the status of "minority peoples."

Propositions

(1) If institutions are introduced into a society which create new routes to upward mobility, then the viability of traditional institutions of mobility is undermined. (P. 256.)
Evidence: Historical interpretation from the erosion of the Indian caste system.

(2) If a rewards system introduced into a traditional society rewards tradtionally low-status positions, then there is a tendency for the traditional status system to weaken. (This is true to the extent of traditionally higher status groups competing to be recognized as what were traditionally lower-status groups). (P. 257.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

(3) If values are introduced which oppose traditional forms and values, then the decline of traditional forms and values is proportional with the acceptance of the new values. This process of deterioration is accelerated if traditional values are opposed on several fronts. (P. 258.)
Evidence: Historical interpretation from the decline of the Indian family system.

(4) If a society is undergoing change, the rate of change and the nature of change will tend not to be uniform throughout the society. Social change is characterized by an "acculturational lag" and also by adaptation to idosyncratic characteristics.
Evidence: Historical interpretation.

129C Nimkoff, N., "Is the Joint Family an Obstacle to Industrialization?," Int. J. Comp. Sociol., 1(1), 1960: 109=118.

Joint families are said to militate against efficient industrial development because they: encourage nepotism, lower incentive, restrict freedom, and encourage passivity. After considering these changes, the author concludes that the impact of the joint family depends upon the type of modernization contemplated, though there may be some minimal functional requisites for an industrial society.

Propositions

5.111 (1) The probability that a traditional social institution will impede the modernization of a society is influenced by the types of modern institutions which are being introduced, i.e., there are numerous ways of modernizing, and traditional institutions are more compatible with some than with others. (P. 118.)

Evidence: Historical analysis of the retention of traditional forms in industrial societies, e.g., the United States and Japan.

130A Ewers, Colin, "Educational Planning and Economic and Social Development," International Journal of Adult and Youth Education, 90(3), 1963: 133-141.

6.01 Written particularly from the point of view of the educator,
the article contains some general remarks on planning and educa-
6.14 tion, followed by a list of suggested essential steps in the planning process.

131A Glinstra Bleeker, R. J. P. van, "Three Secrets of Development Magic," Int. Labour Rev., 90(3), 1964: 252-270.

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The author argues that the economic and social conditions of developing countries require a new approach according to the following principles: (1) better use of existing physical and human capital; (2) well-considered, limited additions to the stock of human capital; and (3) well-considered, new investment in human resources. The ways in which these principles could be applied, and in some cases have been applied, are demonstrated by a few examples, viz: (1) Ceylon's rehabilitation of small tea estates through replanting with high-yielding varieties; (2) the increase of rice production in Ceylon mainly owing to changes in the land tenure system, the guaranteed price system, research and agricultural extension services. It is argued that application of these principles can assist developing countries in the efficient use of their scarce capital resources and skills.

131B "Economic Growth and Social Policy in Latin America; the Seventh Conference of American States Members of the I.L.O.," Int. Labour Rev., 84(1-2), July-August 1961: 50-74.

1.03 Contains a section of economic and social problems in agriculture.

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131C Balima, S. A., "Notes on the Social and Labour Situation in the Republic of Upper Volta," Int. Labour Rev., 82(4), October 1960: 358-362.

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The Republic of Upper Volta which was recently admitted to membership of the United Nations is faced at the outset of its independent existence with very much the same problems as most of the other new African states — an embryonic industrial sector grafted on to an agricultural society that is still largely outside the money economy, a low level of education and meagre vocational training facilities. This situation the author outlines, pointing out, however, that the rich human and natural resources awaiting development in Upper Volta may promise future prosperity.

131D Franco, J., "Productivity and Economic Development in Latin America," Int. Labour Rev., 72, November 1955: 367-384.

1.03 This article deals with Latin America's rising economic productivity and its controlling factors. Markets, mobilization of
1.04 resources, capital and credit, government fiscal policy (or increasing government intervention and control of the economy),
3.10 vocational training and the distribution of wealth are treated. The discussion is in general terms and no particular country with its specific problems is singled out.

Propositions

No propositions.

131E Ghosh, B., "Current Problems and Practices in Workers' Education," Int. Labour Rev., 68, July 1953: 14-46.

3.10 The following is the most relevant part of an abstract which preceded the article: "The article attempts a general picture
6.01 of what is being done at present in the matter of workers' education in various countries. The author classifies the education
6.14 provided into three types (primary education; education of the worker as a member of a professional group; and education of the worker as a member of the community), indicates the scope and content of the programs devised for each type and enumerates the various methods and techniques employed. The last section of the article gives an account of the agencies providing educational facilities for workers, including workers associations, universities, governments and the specialized agencies."

Propositions

(1) If trade union leaders conceive of unions as instruments of social exchange they it is probable that they will support the teaching of favorable doctrines and idealogies in public schools. (P. 23.)

Evidence: Author's unsubstantiated generalization.

131F Dantwala, M. L., "Land Reforms in India," Int. Labour Rev., 66, 1952: 419-443.

1.021 This article deals with the problem of the imbalance of land ownership in India, some historical-political factors which led

4.14 to this condition, the effects of this pattern of land distribution on India's people, and some of the legal means which were used to attempt to eliminate the inequalities and dysfunctional aspects of this system. Three systems of land tenure are described, the Zamindari System, the Mahalwari system, and the Ryotivari system. Recent agrarian legislation is reviewed and analyzed and a list of agrarian legislation by states is supplied.

Propositions

(1) If a government permits landlords to collect taxes from their tenants under the agreement that landlords keep a certain percentage of these taxes including a portion of the increase of taxes following increased productivity, then it is probable that the socio-economic gap between landlord and tenant will widen. (P. 421.)
Evidence: Case history of British scheme to collect taxes in India (Zamindari system).

132A Gilchrist, H., "Technical Assistance from the United Nations as Seen in Pakistan," Int. Org., 13(4), August 1959: 505-519.

1.022 As in the case of bilateral programs, the recipient countries carry by far the major costs of technical sssistance programs.

3.173 Agency programs are usually most successful when limited to a relatively small number of projects. Individual projects are generally most effective when careful advance preparations are made with and by the recipient government. Closer integration by United Nations agencies of programming and administration in the field would improve efficiercy of operations in many countries. Fellowships deserve more attention from Technical Assistance Boards, United Nations agencies, and their field representatives. Recipient governments should be induced to participate more effectively in the co-ordination and evaluation of foreign aid programs in their countries. Note should be made of the continued, systematic program and project evaluations carried on by TAB since 1957. And on the basis of these aforegoing evaluations it would seem useful to consider a major reappraisal of the entire United Nations Expanded Program on the tenth anniversary of the start of its field operations.

133A Domergue, M., "La Formazione Dei Quadri (The Formation of a Framework)," Int. R. Community Develop., 10, 1962: 93-95.

5.08 Because community development programs fail to take into account the present condition of the community and the consequences of their lack of education and training, many plans fall.
6.14 Before making large-scale plans it is necessary to establish a frame of reference, taking into account all socio-economic factors. In this way it is possible to form programs which will in fact inspire the population to higher goals, while satisfying a basic developmental need. Such plans were tried in rural Greece, with great success.

133B Opler, Morris Edward, "Political Organization and Economic Growth — The Case of Village India," Int. R. Community Develop., 5, 1960: 187-197.

1.021 A discussion of the nature and changes of the socio-economic and political structure of the Indian village is given. The highly
5.06 organized village provides the individual with a strong anchorage and identification point in relatinn to status, and hence the
7.21 village-born Indian will have no final commitment to urban industrial life; this results in difficulty in the development of a
7.232 skilled labor force. In traditional village political and economic life, disputes were settled along caste-dominated precepts by hereditary based councils of headmen, panchayats (singular headman = panch). The panchayat, in essence, was not a central authority, and village peace and unity was actually maintained through referral to traditional caste usages. Presently, the old form of the panchayat has been transformed into an elective body with a greater amount of control over taxation, roads, education, health and sanitation, and law enforcement. However, the new form constitutes an amalgamation with the old, due to the persistance of caste-type interaction within the formal panchayat structure. New forms of enterprize and occupation have somewhat blurred caste arrangements, but marriage relations are still strictly guarded by caste rule. The consolidation of land holdings has met with a resistance supported by traditional considerations. In sum, "a formal, external apparatus has been given the village.... But the understandings of the people do not yet correspond to the new forms and formula. The social organization of the village is still based on the relationship of autonomous groups to one another."

133C Wood, Evelyn, "Rural Development: Lessons From Europe," Int. R. Community Develop., 6, 1960: 95-106.

1.021 This is a discussion and comparison of rural development in Europe and India with specific reference to the French town of

4.17 Lourmarin and the Indian village of Aundh. The Indian villager's feeling of inferiority toward the townsman is contrasted with the

5.08 French villager's independence, which is nurtured through particication in the Co-operative Union. French villagers manifest a degree of hostility toward government officials, as they feel "that they have built up their lands and the organization of their amenities by their own joint efforts." Both villages have the common existence of nearby aristocratic edifices (the French have a castle in which artists and intellectuals live, and the Indians, a Raja's museum). Both peoples visit these places frequently, and "the common factor between Aundh and Lourmarin in...the personal relationship which has grown between two very different social groups.... What makes such a relationship easier in France is the people's basic sense of equality between one man and another."

134A Ahumada, Jorge, "Hypothesis for the Diagnosis of a Situation of Social Change: The Case of Venezuela," Int'l. Soc. Sci. Journal, 16(2), 1964: 192-202.

1.038 5.01 5.111 5.112 In transitional societies, modernization generates conflicts different from those in traditional and modern societies: transitional societies tend to be culturally heterogeneous; power tends to be dissociated; and experimentation with a process of structural change produces functional maladjustments requiring a high degree of consensus for correction. There is cultural heterogeneity in a society if individuals placed in a similar strata of the power hierarchy show differences in fulfilling the functions of the cultural system, mainly the function of evaluation. Of greater significance is the growing cultural heterogeneity of the elites, reflecting the growing degree of organizational complexity accompanying modernization. The Venezuelan case is drawn upon to demonstrate a diagnosis of social change using the hypothesis presented. The country is then seen to be struggling to find new patterns of development and solutions for its structural maladjustments in a context of cultural heterogeneity and dissociation of power. The problem is whether a coalition can be formed around an efficient long-term program.

Propositions

1.038 5.13 (1) The probability of conflict is greater in a transitional society than in either a traditional society or a modern society. This is true because of: (1) greater cultural heterogeneity, (2) greater dissociation of power, and (3) because structural change causes structural maladjustments. (P. 193.)

Evidence: The discussion is at a high level of generalization. Presumably these propositions are substantiated by the Venezuelan case though this is not clear from the article.

134B Belshaw, Cyril S., "Social Structure and Cultural Values as Related to Economic Growth," Int'l Soc. Sci. Journal., 16(2), 1964: 217-228.

3.02 5.06 The ways in which the anthropological notions of value and of social structure can be related to the process of economic growth are exmined. Nine propositions which indicate the manner in which certain characteristics of values and social structure affect economic growth, including statements which imply a neutral effect, are then set out.

Propositions

3.02 (1) The probability of economic development depends more upon
how values and social structures are manipulated than upon
5.06 the nature of the values of social structures themselves.
(Pp. 221-222.)
Evidence: Unsubstantiated, except for a reference to
the author's experience in Fiji.

134C Brausch, Georges, "Change and Continuity in the Gezira Region of the Sudan," Int'l Soc. Sci Journal, 16(3), 1964: 341-356.

1.128 This is a discussion of the "irrigation scheme" in Sudan
upon the traditional economic structure of Gezira, located in
4.12 central Sudan. A description of the traditional economic organi-
zation is offered, followed by a discussion of the irrigation
5.06 plan itself and the effects of the implementation of the plan
upon (1) the social composition of the population; (2) the
5.121 occupational structure; (3) animal husbandry and cotton farming;
and (4) the position of the Gezira tenant. The smoothness of the
transition to modern agriculture and economic organization was
made possible by the "special pattern of the traditional economic
structure " in Gezira.

134D Carney, David, "The Integration of Social Development Plans with Over-all Development Planning: The Example of Sierra Leone," Int'l. Soc. Sci.Journal, 16(3), 1964: 357-377.

3.07 The Sierra Leone ten-year Development Plan, 1962/63-1971/72,
is cast in normative terms because of inadequate quantitative data
5.08 and planning machinery. Development spending is therefore allo-
cated between social and other sectors in the light of past
7.03 structural deficiencies rather than on the basis of criteria for
optimum allocation. Expansion of social services is recognized
7.18 as limited by the growth rate of the directly productive sectors
but potentially aided by community development effort. This study
inquires into two main objectives: how to (1) integrate social
with overall development planning and (2) secure popular partici-
pation in plan execution. Three major techniques applicable to
countries with differing ideologies are suggested for achieving
the first objective: (a) demographic technique, (b) input-output
analysis and linear programing, (c) regional planning. (a) Plan-
ning being for the benefit of people, policies and resources may
be concerted toward influencing the existing values of a limited
number of key demographic variables—rate of population growth;

infant mortality; life expectancy; size, age and sex distribution of the labor force; skill distribution of the labor force, etc. (b) On the basis of a distinction between social services as final demand and as input factors associated with economic projects, and assuming the necessary technical conditions can be derived, such data can be fed along with those for the economic sectors into an input-output model and with the aid of consistency checks the appropriate pattern of resource allocation between social and other expenditures may be obtained. (c) Regional planning and consultation, coupled with matching voluntary local contributions, provides a rough pragmatic approach. Community development aided by central government material and financial contributions is the usual prescription for the second objective, but only makes a virtue of the well-known weakness associated with strong centralist traditions of government administration and finance widespread in Africa and other developing areas, namely, weak local authority finances and administration. This weakness underlies the much-deplored practice of planning from top down, instead of in both directions, and the concomitant lack of grass-roots enthusiasm for national plans. Enthusiasm has, therefore, to be manufactured through community development schemes in an implicit vicious circle of increasing centralism and lack of enthusiasm. While regional planning and consultation may help stimulate popular enthusiasm, the ultimate key to effective popular participation in development lies in strengthening local authority administration and finances. Local authorities well-financed by their communities and by appropriate sharing of revenues with the central government provide mutual competition in expenditure of resources on projects desired by their communities within the framework of national plans and with total community involvement.

134E Dube, S.C., "Bureaucracy and Nation Building in Transitional Societies," Int'l. Socc Sci. Journal, 16(2), 1964: 228-236.

5.08 An understanding of the character and culture of bureaucracy is essential for those concerned with programs of economic
7.03 growth and social change in economically less developed countries.! Community development involves the three stages of planning for the people, with the people, and finally by the people. Both the first and second stages call for considerable direct participation by the bureaucracy. In most former colonies and dependencies, bureaucrats became efficient instruments of administration, showing all the classical characteristics of formal organization. Certain special characteristics as a distinct subcultural entity emerged and crystallized during the colonial phase: (1) bureaucracy constituted the high prestige strata of

the society; (2) it maintained a dual traditional and modern identification; (3) bureaucratic positions carried powers beyond formal role and status definitions; (4) the bureaucratic machine had, in general, a paternalistic attitute to the masses; (5) the general administrator enjoyed supremacy over subject-matter specialists; (6) bureaucracy was carefully trained in formal administrative procedure and routine; (7) it found a self-contained system in the limited framework of its functions; (8) its attitude to the nationalist forces within was marked by ambivalence. In the first decade of independence, bureaucracy found itself in a difficult and uncomfortable position. The more important areas in which it had to work for a redefinition of its position were: (a) the culture of politics, (b) the emerging ethos, and (c) the expanding sphere of state activity and the new institutional arrangements. In the new order politics replaced administration in supremacy, with an unmistakable tendency towards the merging of political roles with personal and social roles. The bureaucracy accepted political direction in many countries, but the new order posed a threat to its structure, values and interests. The emerging ethos also presented bureaucracy with problems regarding the maintenance of its image of power, its existence as a high-prestige class, and its paternalistic tone of administration. Bureaucracy has resisted innovations in its structural arrangement, especially those which encroach on the position of the general administrator. While it has played an important part in the process of economic and social growth, functioning as a model and as an instrument for modernization, its effective utilization has been blocked by paradoxes of the new political culture and by inner contradictions in its own structure and values.

Propositions

No propositions.

134F Firth, Raymond, "Intooduction: Leadership and Economic Growth," Int'l. Soc. Sci. Journal, 16(2), 1964: 186-191.

3.02 This is an introductory comment on eight essays dealing with the social preconditions to economic growth and related issues
5.06 of leadership. All the essays are case studies by writers with personal experience in the types of societies discussed. It is found that consensus is assumed to be a prerequisite to effective economic action, with leadership a function of the situation. The significance of the leaders depends on the kind of job to be done and upon the structure of power in the society. A basic incongruity between backward and advanced sectors in many

societies seeking economic growth produces a radical dichotomy of economic aims and potentialities. Substantial economic development will then require replacement of leader groups. One of the most useful analytical functions of sociologists in the study of leadership for economic growth lies in the fields of recruitment and replacement, values and aspirations, and the bases of authority and of sanctions. Since leaders cannot be created but only stimulated to appear, a country cannot invest in economic leadership but in those categories of persons which historically have been seen to produce leaders. Finally, the essays make clear the need for more comparative sociological research into the character and social framework of leadership.

Propositions

No propositions.

134G Kollontai, V.M., and G. I. Mirsky, "Social Development Indices in National Economic Programmes," Int'l. Soc. Sci. Journal, 16(2), 1964: 284-290.

1.06 Indices describing the welfare of the people and various social expenditures are prominent in programs of economic development, forming an independent part of the plan. Social indices
3.07 can be sound and practical only if linked with analysis of the prospects of economic development. However, the relationships
3.19 between social and economic development and the role of different social indices are not the same. The most rational method to determine the social indices is by means of several mutually complementary analysis and estimates, with the initial data provided by overall evaluation of the pace of economic development during the plan's operation. Concrete estimates of indices require comprehensive analysis and cannot be discussed with reference to finances alone. As in the case of economic indices, social indices vary according to whether the programs are long- or short-term, with the biggest difficulties arising in elaboration of long-term plans. A high pace of economic advance is especially important for settlement of most of the problems. The experience of national policy in the USSR proves the importance of a correct balance of economic and social progress.

Propositions

No propositions.

134H Kriesberg, Louis, "Entrepreneurs in Latin America and the Role of Cultural and Situational Processes," Int'l. Soc. Sci. Journal, 15(4), 1963: 581-596.

1.03 This is an examination of the effect of situational processes of social change on Latin-American entrepreneurs, defined
1.04 as owner- or employee-managers of large-scale enterprises. Hypotheses are: (1) values and beliefs associated with behavior
3.14 learned early in life are more likely to be determined by cultural processes than those associated with behavior learned later in life. (2) Behavior dependent on previous behavior is more likely determined by cultural processes than behavior serially independent. (3) Insofar as behavioral consequences can be tested, associated values and beliefs are more likely to be determined by situational processes than by cultural processes. (4) Collective action is dependent more on situational processes than on cultural processes. Values and beliefs with reference to engaging in entrepreneurial activity are: (a) Beliefs in stable and orderly society, (b) beliefs in expansion and development of society, (c) beliefs in own ability, (d) valuing success, and entrepreneurial activity as a vehicle for success. The situational processes operating on these values and beliefs are discussed. The distribution of beliefs (cultural) is not only related to child-rearing patterns, but to the character of the stratification system. Beliefs based on part on one's socio-cultural position is determined in part by situational processes. This suggests that societies are likely to differ in percentage of the population who are potential entrepreneurs, and that the various strata within a society differ with regard to potential for entrepreneurial activity. The ability of entrepreneurs to keep out persons of non-business-executive origins, and the inability of sons of non-business-executive origins to gain entrance, reveals the importance of situational processes in entrepreneur recruitment. The value of desiring to enter this occupation is also affected by situations, such as the availability of role models. Situational processes factors also affect entrepreneurial activity through the disrupting of old occupational patterns; e.g., the closing or the limiting of these occupational roles might lead to entrance into business roles. Furthermore, widespread entrepreneurial activity within a region facilitates the acquisition of relevant skills to enter into business activity. Engaging in entrepreneurial activity is not limited only by cultural processes; an interlocking set of contemporary conditions limit entrance to and success in this occupational role.

Propositions

1.03 (1) The probability of entrepreneurial activity will be increased
1.04 if the economy is perceived as stable, if the economy is per-
3.14 ceived as expanding, and/or if individuals are confident of their abilities. (P. 587.)
3.15 Evidence: Unsubstantiated.

134I Bowman, Mary Jean, "Social Returns to Education," Int'l. Soc. Sci. Journal, 14, Winter, 1962: 647-659.

3.02 This paper attempts to examine and untangle some of the
concepts concerning the interrelations between education and
6.01 economic development, focusing on "social" vs. "private" returns
to education. The problems of analysis are emphasized.
6.16

134J Clignet, R., "Introduction to the Inquiry on the Attitudes of Society Towards Women in the Ivory Coast," Int'l. Soc. Sci. Journal, 14(1), January 1962: 137-148.

1.019 This is an examination of the changing status of females in
the Ivory Coast and consequent attitudes, drawing upon some
3.08 earlier studies of these changes. The ways in which acculturation
has led to modifications in traditional patterns--largely through
5.062 the introduction of industrial crops upsetting the traditional
division of labor between the sexes--are outlined. Introduction
5.061 of a profit economy has resulted in changes in the family struc-
ture: in different patterns of internal family authority and
5.14 the weakening of the influence of the kin group on both husband
and wife. It is noted that females seem to be "striving to improve their social status, first, by marrying later (so that they are able to put up more resistance to pressures from their original family group), and secondly, by increasing their chances of earning an independent income, either by obtaining a better education...or by engaging in some independent economic activity (handicrafts or trade)."

134K Debeauvais, M., "The Concept of Human Capital," Int'l. Soc. Sci. Journal, 14(4), 1962: 660-675.

3.02 This is an analysis of recent research attempting to evaluate
the role of the human factor in economic growth. To explain the
3.10 "residual factor" of growth, qualitative improvement in manpower
must be measured by an increase in its educational capital. How-
3.11 ever, the economic value of education can only be calculated by
supposing that differential salaries reflect differential produc-
6.16 tivity. The correlations between levels of economic development
and the proportion of national revenue dedicated to education are unsatisfactory, and establish an interdependence, rather than a cause-and-effect relationship. Attempts have also been made to base educational plans on the satisfaction of manpower needs, which makes possible the integration of the human factor and plans for economic development. It is proposed to measure levels of workers

skills by the number of years necessary for their training, and to represent them by pyramids. Thus, education can be considered as a factor of technical innovation, and one which creates productive employment. Training thus develops the worker's productivity, and education contributes to growth: however, the analogy with material capital stops there.

Propositions

3.10 (1) A rise in the level of skill of an economy's labor force is a necessary condition for economic growth. (P. 663.)
Evidence: The author states that this proposition is suggested by previous analysis, but he states that better statistical information is required for quantitative verification.

6.16 (2) If an economy's level of average education rises, then economic growth will result ceteris paribus, i.e., education is more than a condition; it is a cause of growth. (Pp. 664-665.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

134L Forget, Nelly, "Attitudes towards Work by Women in Morocco," Int'l. Soc. Sci. Journal, 14(1), January 1962: 92-123.

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The results of the economic transformation of Morocco have included a significant increase in the number of working women, in urban areas. A pilot project analyzed the answers to questionnaires administered to 60 male and female students (from all social classes) in the cities of Fez, Rabat, and Casablanca, with reference to their reactions to this novel phenomenon and to see if the traditional female role model had been really affected. Some notable divergencies included: (1) Only females considered the current change in their situation as the first step of a continuing evolution toward equality. (2) For working class females the sole reason and/or excuse for female work is economic necessity; these females still attached to traditional models, are torn by contradictory demands and seek to justify their actions, rather than to acknowledge any positive values in their new position. (3) Other social classes recognize other motivations according to their attitudes to different professions, but also emphasize economic needs. The medical-social and teaching professions, considered especially suited either to female aptitudes or to the needs of national development, share in general approval. For the partisans of female work, working females are not affirming a revolutionary role, but adapting in a new way, corresponding to new circumstances, to their familial role.

134M Hayden, Howard, "Administration and the Economics of Education," Int'l. Soc. Sci. Journal, 14(4), 1962: 700-705.

6.11 This is an endeavor to place the economist's approach to educational planning, conceived as being essential in opposition
6.14 to that of the educator, in the context of administrative possibility.

134N Lewis, W. Arthur, "Education and Economic Development," Int'l. Soc. Sci. Journal, 14(4), 1962: 685-699.

1.01 The requirements of economic development in Africa are an important, but not overriding, factor in the determination of
3.02 the type and quality of education deemed desirable. Two types of education are discernible: (1) "investment education" which is
6.07 used to increase productive capacity, and (2) "consumption education" which does not increase productivity, at least in the
6.09 short run. The nature and limits of investment education are explored. In poor countries, an oversupply of educated persons and the wrong type of educational elite create problems; yet poor countries may need educated persons more than the rich. Where an oversupply occurs, the educated lower their sights, and employers raise their requirements. A formula is presented to calculate "the percentage of the age cohort who should receive a secondary (or other level) education." This is helpful because when primary education is rapidly expanding in a country, proper provision for secondary education may not be made. The quickest way to increase the productivity of a country is to train and educate adults who are already on the job. The university, and the role of research, are also discussed.

134O Phillips, H.M., "Economic and Social Aspects of the Planning of Education," Int'l. Soc. Sci. Journal, 14 (4), 1962: 706-718.

3.02 This article discusses the activities of the educational planner, particularly with respect to economic development.

6.14

134P Strumilin, Stanislav, "The Economics of Education in the U.S.S.R.," Int'l. Soc. Sci. Journal, 14, Winter 1962: 633-646.

1.06 The author discusses education and its role in the growth of the economy. In the Soviet case, one year of primary education
6.04 or generalized education is capable of producing more production

6.05 from workers than one year of apprenticeship training for an illiterate. A broad view of the development and success of the
6.06 Soviet educational system since the advent of the Communist regime is presented.
6.07

Propositions

1.06 (1) Generalized education may be more conducive to the development of an economy than training which concentrates on specialized
6.07 tasks. (P. 364.)

134Q Vaizey, John, "Introduction to Economics of Education," Int'l. Soc. Sci. Journal, 14(4), 1962: 619-632.

6.13 This is an introductory article to a symposium on the economics of education; it explores some aspects of the relation of
6.14 education and its planning to development.

Propositions

3.02 (1) Economic development of developing countries may be hindered because the educational system which is vital to economic
6.16 development by its very nature often goes contrary to centuries of traditional types of education. (P. 620.)
Evidence: Generalization.

5.111 (2) The level of educational development in a country is related to the status of the teaching profession in that country.
6.12 (P. 623.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

6.16 (3) Education which is narrowly confined to that nation's culture (defined in the narrow sense of art, music, etc.) may
5.112 inhibit the development of skills and subjects which are vital to economic growth. (The argument is that such activity preempts energy.) (P. 627.)

6.02 (4) If a developing country copies methods of education used in labor-extensive countries and tries to apply these methods to its own labor-intensive country, the growth of the economy may suffer. (P. 628.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

134R Helaissi, A.S., "Nomads and Nomadism in the Arid Zone. The Bedouins in Saudi Arabia," Int'l. Soc. Sci. Journal, 11(4), 1959: 532-538.

1.238 The author covers the following points in his paper: (1)
The rapid development which has taken place in the social life
3.02 of Saudi Arabia and which has made an impact on the people living
in towns and oil production areas as well as on the Bedouins.
5.021 (2) Education and communications. (3) The extension of
mechanized agriculture and its role in settling and housing the
5.064 Bedouins. (4) The influence of artesian wells on the life of
the Bedouins. (5) Health. (6) A general view of the efforts
of the government of Saudi Arabia with regard to the evolution
of the Bedouins.

135A Akrawi, Matta, "Educational Planning in a Developing Country," Internatl. Rev. of Education, 6, 1960: 257-284.

1.128 This article proposes a new educational framework, more in-
keeping with the needs of the Sudan, and indicates the measures
6.04 needed to bring this to fruition, initially by means of a Five-
Year plan. This is only a prelininary exercise, and it is not
6.14 fully worked out in relation to wider needs of planned economic
development.

Propositions

(1) Economic and/or any other kind of growth in an underdeveloped country can be inhibited if in the attempt to spread a maximum of education throughout the population the minimum grade level that you want the population to achieve is set too low (if the desired grade level is set at fourth grade, the student just barely becomes literate) and if his education stops here he will tend to revert to illiteracy. (P. 266.)

Evidence: Case history of Sudan.

136A Hennings, R.O., "Grazing Management in the Pastoral Areas of Kenya," Journal African Admin., 13(4), October 1961: 191-203.

1.016 On the basis of experience in Kenya this article attempts a general analysis of establishing grazing management in primitive
4.06 pastoral areas. The field is a wide one and embraces a complex of technical and administrative factors, but since the purpose is
4.11 a comprehensive view more space is given to administration than to technical matters, although all relevant factors are mentioned.
4.16 The conclusion is that each aspect, whether technical or administrative, must be dealt with as carefully and skillfully as possible, for failure in any one aspect is bound to damage or destroy the whole scheme. A planning committee together with an administrator should work out the plan and be ready to help until the local stock-owners are ready to take over. The economics of ranch schemes are a separate and highly specialized subject and are not dealt with in this article.

136B Livingstone, A.S., "Training in Public Administration for Overseas Government Servants," Journal African Admin., 13(2), April 1961: 105-107.

7.03 Originally an experiment, a one-year course at the University of Manchester in administrative training is now in its fourth year; it is designed to meet the needs or experienced civil servants from Asia and Africa who have completed academic studies in their own countries. The course introduces students to Western administrative practice and attempts to relate this knowledge to planning and development problems overseas. This article details the training program and the administration of the course.

136C North, A.C., "Rural Local Government Training in Northern Rhodesia," Journal African Admin., 13(2), April 1961: 67-77.

1.125 This is a descriptive account of the work of the Native Authority Development Centre at Chalimbana. After a historical intro-
7.03 duction to the development of the NADC follows information concercerning present staffing, the output of students and the types of
7.19 courses offered to them: they are designed to meet the needs of chiefs and councillors, African civil servants, businessmen and
7.21 farmers, and also for the newly-arrived European officers. Teaching methods are outlined; the general aim of all courses is to broaden the outlook, increase efficiency, improve understanding of the function and powers of the central government for those engaged in local affairs, and in general to increase enlightenment.

136D North, A.C., J.C. Mousley, P. Greening, and I.H. Muchangwe, "African Land Tenure Developments in Kenya and Uganda and their Application to Northern Rhodesia," Journal African Admin., 13(4), October 1961: 211-219.

1.016 1.121 1.125 4.06 4.14 This paper is an extract from a report prepared by two District Officers and two Agricultural Officers after a visit to Kenya to study land tenure developments from the viewpoint of field officers, but it is not an expression of policy of the Northern Rhodesian Government. It outlines the general problem and then details their reasons for stating that there is a need for change, for consolidation and registration in certain areas. The Kenyan approach is the one that is generally favored despite its laboriousness and expense, but more regional planning than in Kenya is favored. Departmental responsibilities are outlined and the essential need for pilot schemes of registration is stressed.

136E Prosser, R.C., "Training for Local Government," Journal African Admin., 13(2), April 1961: 98-104.

1.061 7.03 7.19 This is a brief description of the types of training of a formal nature that are in operation in Kenya at present; on the representative side are the district courses organized for the councillors of district, and locational councillors, while for executives training is carried out within the councils and at Jeanes School, Kabete (a government school of adult education). For more senior executives there are periods of study in the United Kingdom during which Africans are attached to local authorities. The purpose is to increase technical efficiency and the understanding of government functions at the local level. A major difficulty lies in the fact that executive efficiency exceeds that of the councillors and this can be dangerous if the council relies too much on its staff, dangers of bribery, corruption and nepotism.

136F Robins, J.W., "Developments in Rural Local Government in Nyasaland," Journal African Admin., 13(3), July 1961: 148-157.

1.124 7.19 7.22 The recent history of rural local government falls into three phases: prior to 1953 the slow development of native authorities, 1953-1960 an experiment in establishing district councils and since 1960 a divorce between native authorities and district councils so that each could develop unhampered by the other. A distinction is drawn between local government and native administration, and the way is open for the development of more representative constitutions in the councils without offense to traditional authority which is now a separate body. The position of the Chief is made clearer as both agent of the government and leader of his people. The future of native authorities depends on tribal developments which cannot be foreseen or determined by the government.

136G Wallis, C.A.G., "Local Administration in the Sudan," Journal African Admin., 13(3), July 1961: 158-164.

1.128 A consequence of the new military government of the Sudan was the Provincial Administration Act of 1960 which enacted that (1)
7.03 local government should continue with appointed instead of elected membership; (2) a provincial administration be created consisting
7.19 of a fit person to represent the Government, a Province Council and a Province Authority; (3) the office of district commissioner be abolished together with the earlier form of provincial government. The purpose of this new system is to decentralize, to tighten up local government, and to allow for a measure of regional autonomy without undermining national unity, and seems to show a wish to decentralize administration but to subject it to strong administrative control, to associate the people with government but not to give popular rule.

136H Apthorpe, R., "The Introduction of Bureaucracy into African Polities," Journal African Admin., 12(3), July 1960: 125-134.

1.01 The British administrative pattern in Africa has been the system of indirect rule. This has been successful only in areas
7.03 where centralized leadership already apparently existed but the Colonial office was not flexible enough to adapt the system to different situations. Interest has been stimulated in indigenous political systems, however, and recent research suggests, contrary to previous belief, that non-centralized and sometimes chiefless society is the norm. The aim had been to gather communities into bigger units, but this has not always been successful. African polities range from those with a universally recognized and obeyed political hierarchy, to those where political power depends on personal position and strength. It is the second type that absorbs most easily the Western type of civil service structure.

136I Borwn, R.T., "Local Government in the African Areas in Kenya," Journal African Admin., 12(3), July 1960: 147-149.

1.016 Over the last four years there has been a steady advance in
the development of African District Councils and this year the
7.19 first African Chairman of one of these was appointed. These councils are advised financially by men drawn from the English Local
Government Service. At the end of 1957, an improved financial
arrangement was reached between councils and the central government.
Councils depend mostly for their revenue on government grants and
only secondarily on the Poll Rate. In procedure the committee
system is becoming more and more used, and there has been considerable development in the locational councils. Always important
is the problem of training staff. In the long run it appears
that the District Councils will achieve County Council status, but
there are still obstacles.

136J McEntee, P.D., "Improved Farming in the Central Nyanza District--Kenya Colony," Journal African Admin., 12(2), April 1961: 68-73.

1.016 In 1956 attempts were made by government officers to convince the people of the benefits of land consolidation. In spite
4.14 of the greatest care and patience, suspicion and misunderstanding
quickly led to opposition. Because the natives are a proud,
7.23 conservative people, the psychological approach was, therefore,
of great importance, and it was agreed that the opposite policy
of openly discouraging consolidation might succeed, giving the
reasons that the people in general were not ready for such an
advanced step. The scheme worked and consolidation is under way.

136K Tinker, H., "Authority and Community in Village India," Journal African Admin., 12(4), October 1960: 193-210.

1.021 What are the presuppositions which have accumulated about
Indian village society and its role in national development; what
5.08 is the ideal of "village democracy" as the foundation of national
reconstruction and how does it contrast with the central development program of reality; how far can ideal and reality be brought
7.12 into a more harmonious adjustment? The conflicting propositions
7.21 that the villager is uniquely aware of his village as his own
place and that the village's capacity for leadership and its
corporate sense have generally proved inadequate to make the
village a better place are not irreconcilable, for one can demonstrate that village associations are powerful but mainly negative,
working against corporate action and initiative. The

dramatization of the national effort has to be mirrored by an effort within the village, and signs are not wanting that in some villages a new spirit of self-confidence is building up, shattering the "pathetic contentment" of the age-old village world. It is necessary to reverse the flight of the educated to the towns, to overcome resistance to the attempts of the lower castes to raise their status, to encourage the rich to accept their obligation to utilize part of their wealth for the good of the community. Change will not come by means of administrative or sociological devices, but by the example that the nation's elite set of service to the community, of simple living, and of refusal to tolerate caste exclusiveness.

136L Wallis, L.G.C., "Nigerianization of the Public Services in Western Nigeria," Journal African Admin., 12(3), July 1960: 144-146.

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Nigerianization of the administrative and of the professional class has been very rapid but has taken place over a comparatively short space of time. Thus, there are few seasoned officers. Thus, too, the need to provide in-service training for young officers, but again things go very quickly and often there is little contact with experienced officials. Europeans are being brought in, with contracts carefully worked out to expire when Nigerians become available for the job. In this way, the worst effects of the departure of the Europeans are being avoided.

136M Zimmerman, V.B., "Philippine Clues to the Future of Local Government in South-East Asia," Journal African Admin., 12(1), January 1960: 34-43.

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The arrival of colonial powers in Asia did not entirely destroy the old system of government in the autonomous village communities. The whole system was generally coordinated by the Europeans by a type of prefecture. In the last twenty-five years this has been subject to some strain. Independence removed its personnel and the expanding population has called for wholly new governmental solutions. In the Philippines the autonomous local government units are largely a facade, since all the important activities of government are carried on by the national departments through their own field officials. There is a move for local independence now and a general loosening of the control over authorities. Along with this has gone a move to take the government to the people, and this will tend to facilitate the growth of democratic local autonomy. Many American ideas have been important in this process.

136N Clayton, E.S., "Safeguarding Agrarian Development in Kenya," Journal African Admin., 11, July 1959: 144-150.

1.016 This article discusses agrarian problems in Kenya and the policies devised to meet them by the British administration, from
4.06 early efforts up to the land consolidation movement and Swynnerton plan developments. New problems arising from the transition to a
4.08 commerical agriculture, such as risks from plant disease and price fluctuations in the world markets and the need to produce crops
4.14 of consistently high quality, are indicated.

1360 Dyson, P., "Local Government Training the Western Region of Nigeria," Journal African Admin., 11(4), October 1959: 193-200.

1.021 The new local government law in 1952 introduced a whole new system and, with the new units created, a need for many more
7.03 personnel. The difficulty was aggravated by the low general standard of native authority employees. A nine months' course was
7.20 set up in 1953 to train students to serve as secretaries or treasurers to all but the largest councils, but it was soon clear that courses for subordinate officers were also required. This was soon provided. There was also a scheme of attaching Nigerians to British authorities for experience, but this has not been found useful. The problem remains of men getting senior jobs in virtue of their training but without any experience of the work, and suggested reforms in the training program have been put forward. Much has been learned about the requirements of such a course, and this is an asset, even though the general standard of the service is low.

136P Loveridge, A.J., "Chiefs and Politics," Journal African Admin., 11(4), October 1959: 201-207.

1.014 At one point the institution of chieftaincy was linked with that of indirect rule and Africans were against it, but now few
7.16 urge its dissolution. The question arises today in Ghana but it is world wide and has a long complex history. The background
7.22 against which it must be seen is that of the developments of democracy. This calls in question the whole idea. It seems clear that chiefs will survive as long as tribalism survives, but detribalization has long started. There is a real incompatibility between tribalism and the new nationalism, and if Asian experience is a guide, it will soon be swamped.

136Q Sady, E.J., "Community Development and Local Government," *Journal African Admin.*, 11(4), October 1959: 179-186.

5.08 The task of local government and that of community development programs differ, but they complement each other in various
7.21 ways. Local government can provide the authority to maintain advances by community development and this development can rejuvenate local government. Such activities provide excellent ground for the development of leadership but can also weaken, or cause suspicion among, those in charge of local government if they are not consulted at every point. Bodies to run programs benefit by representation from the government bodies, for a diarchy must be avoided at all costs. Thus, general purpose bodies may be used successfully as instruments of common development only at levels where statutory local bodies do not exist. It is, however, possible to improve the local authority in this way.

136R Pedraza, G.J.W., "Land Consolidation in the Kikuyu Areas of Kenya," *Journal African Admin.* 8, April 1956: 82-87.

1.016 This is an examination of the problem "only as it affects the three Kikuyu districts in which there is a general similarity of
4.14 procedure." The author discusses the three major obstacles which had to be overcome before any progress could be made in dealing
4.183 with Kikuyu land problems: (1) the suspicion, often aggravated by political agitators, with which the tribe regarded any government move affecting the land; (2) the inborn conservatism of the peasant farmer, accustomed to traditional agricultural methods; (3) the system of land tenure and inheritance. He describes the customary system of land tenure, the method of consolidation, the subsequent enclosure and farm planning activities, and the significance of consolidation.

136S Wilson, R.G., "Land Consolidation in the Fort Hall District of Kenya," *Journal African Admin.*, 8, July 1956: 144-151.

1.016 This paper reviews the rapid progress of consolidation schemes made possible by the Mau Mau emergency, and then tells how
4.07 consolidation was carried out in the Fort Hall district. "The Kikuyu are, without doubt, the most eager for advancement and,
4.16 perhaps, the most quick-witted of the tribes in Kenya. Once they had seen the financial benefits which would accrue from the proper planning of their farms--backed up, as an end product of the scheme, by the marketing of their produce through clubs and cooperatives--they showed no hesitation in demanding that consolidation should be brought about as soon as possible.

136T Caroe, Olaf, "Land Tenure and the Franchise. A Basis for Partnership in African Plural Societies," Journal African Admin., 6(4), October 1954: 152-160.

1.01 This article argues the necessity of establishing a system of
land tenure in Africa. This is important because of the inappli-
4.14 cability of quantitative democracy in areas characterized by
profound heterogeneity, e.g., primitive peoples and university
4.181 graduates. In this situation, qualitative democracy associated
with the system of land tenure is appropriate.

Propositions

1.01 (1) If modern values are introduced into a traditional society,
then there is a tendency for a disintegration of traditional
5.14 values to result. (P. 153.)

Evidence: Not specifically substantiated, but presumably a generalization from the experience of traditional societies.

137A Pearson, R., "Zones of Agricultural Development in Guatemala; An Experiment in Land Reform," J. Geog., 62(1), January 1963: 11-22.

1.046 This paper describes what took place from 1956-1961 in the
Guatemalan Canal reform program. The zones under consideration in
4.12 this paper represent what is going on in one of the many land reform
programs in existence in Latin America today. The program is the
4.14 result of careful planning alone; it has evolved from trial and
error with many successes and many failures. Perhaps the greatest
value of this paper lies in the light it may throw upon the question
of what can happen in a nation that receives United States assistance after overthrowing a pro-Communist government.

138A Sturrock, F. G., "Agricultural Economics in West Africa," J. Agric. Econ., 16(1), 1964: 2-12.

1.01
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France still maintains the closest economic links with her former dependencies in Africa. Britain's former possessions tend to turn to the United States, Canada, Australia and other English-speaking countries besides England. It is important that those Africans who do come to the United Kingdom to study agricultural economics should be properly taught. If teaching relates continually to the large mechanized farm with expensive labor, the African may conclude quite uncritically that immediate mechanization is the key to progress in the tropics, without converting what he has heard into principles which apply to the small African family farm with cheap labor.

138B Clayton, Eric S., "Economic and Technical Optima in Peasant Agriculture," J. Agric. Econ., 14(3), May 1961: 337-347.

1.016
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The reforms now taking place in Kenya rest on twin pillars -- the consolidations and enclosure of scattered fragments and the introduction of sound farming systems on these consolidated holdings. This paper determines the level of returns which optimal resource allocation would provide on a particular holding under different sets of assumptions, using an actual holding situated in the Kagere sub-location of Othaya Division, Nyeri District, Central Province as an example. Linear programming was used to make this comparison and in the process of applying this technique, certain interesting relationships were thrown up which cast new light on some of the peasant farming problems of Kenya. Although the discussion relates to one situation and one holding only, nevertheless, it is a precise and quantitative discussion upon which policy decisions may be more soundly based.

138C Naylor, P. E., "A Farm Survey of the New Hawija Settlement Project in Central Iraq," J. Agric. Econ., 14(1), June 1960: 62-72.

1.244
4.17
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138D Oluwasanmi, H. A., "Agriculture in a Developing Economy," J. Agric. Econ., 14(2), December 1960: 234-241.

1.012
4.01
This article is a brief description of the general economic pattern of Nigerian agriculture, and of food consumption and purchasing, during a time when the national real product is increasing rapidly. The paper is based in part on the results of a number of surveys carried out between 1953 and 1955 among urban wage and small salary-earners, at a time when agriculture and allied industries contributed about 68 per cent of the gross domestic product of Nigeria, and employed more than 75 per cent of the total working population. The current levels of most wage-earners' food expenditure were adequate in terms of calories but inadequate in other nutritional aspects, and their expenditure on food is likely to continue to rise with increasing income. Fundamental improvements in agricultural techniques will be necessary if the productivity of both agricultural land and labor is to rise, and labor freed to migrate to industrial employment.

139A Wharton, Clifton R., "Processing Data From an Underdeveloped Area," J. American Stat. Assoc., 55(289), March 1960: 23-37.

1.032
4.02
The paper relates the detailed procedures used to process data obtained from a sample of farm families in the State of Minas Gerais, Brazil. The author states that while some problems discussed are peculiar to Brazilian agriculture, many are common to agricultural research in other underdeveloped regions. He concludes with four general comments; (1) Simplicity in analytical tools is not only a virtue, it is a must. (2) Ingenuity must be kept to the forefront. (3) Imputation dangers must constantly be recognized. (4) Compromises with accepted procedures must be expected. This paper will be of interest to researchers in underdeveloped areas.

140A Ayal, E.B., "The Impact of Export Taxes on the Domestic Economy of Underdeveloped Countries," J. Dev. Studies, 1 (4), 1965: 330-362.

1.027 1.237 3.16 4.04 Export taxation is defined as the means used by government to acquire part of export returns from domestic suppliers. Three methods are distinguished: (1) tax technically collected from exporters; (2) statutory export "monopoly"; and (3) multiple exchange rates. Though this taxation on primary products is common in developing countries, little analytical work has been done on its economic impact probably due to: the dearth of relevant data; the variety of, and the rapid changes in, measures that could be subsumed under the term "export taxes"; the necessary dependence on analytical concepts which are difficult to quantify; and the multiplicity of institutions and products involved. The effects of export tax on rice on the economic development of Thailand and Burma are evaluated and some resulting generalizations examined. Economic development is defined as an irreversible process of change in the economic structure which results in an upward trend in the per caput income. The export tax in Thailand helps the country to move in this direction. By encouraging capital, entrepreneurs, and labour to move away from rice production to other economic activities, it breaks down the traditional yearly cycle which revolves around rice production. The present organization of Thai (and Burmese) rice production holds little promise for significant and continuous increase in labour productivity; measures for the departure of an increasing number of potential rice farmers are therefore essential for development. Since export taxation also encourages the transfer of capital and enhances structural changes, it is a particularly suitable method for this purpose. Possible negative effects are potential food bottlenecks and a relatively unfavourable impact on the balance of payments. In Burma diversification has probably been less, due to secure price and the lack of attractive outlets for increased income. Since Burma's need for development is as urgent as Thailand's (Burma's per caput income is noticeably lower), it is concluded that Burma should adapt the Thai system of taxing rice exports. The findings of this analysis are compared with those of P. Bauer in his book, "West African Trade" and in "Marketing Monopoly in British Africa" Kyklos, Bern 9 (2), 1956: 164-178. From this comparison it is concluded that the generalization applies to the analytical approach of this investigation rather thanto substantive conclusions based on studies of specific products and countries. The economic impact of export taxation depends not only on the particular way in which the tax is imposed, but also on the product taxed, the production and market organization, the stage of economic development and other circumstances determining the need and potentialities of the economy at the particular time. For some countries more data might be available to permit statistical derivation of, for example, some of the elasticities. If applied to other countries for which data are even worse, the analysis would require greater reliance on knowledge of institutional structure and on a priori reasoning than that resorted to in this study.

140B Penrose, E.F., "Political Development and the Intra-Regional Balance of Power," J. Dev. Studies, 1 (1), October 1964: 47-70.

7.15 There is a relation between political development and intra-regional balance of power within "the third world" only. The author enters into a discussion of two of the chief preoccupations of the domestic policies of states which directly or indirectly affect their external policies, both within their own regions and in respect to the wider world. The idea of regional balances of power in the Afro-Asian-Latin American world has regained practical importance following the world movement towards decolonization, and it is likely to retain it in the near future. However, outside interventions, direct or indirect, complicate the application of the conception of intra-regional balance of power to the appropriate regions of Asia, Africa and Latin America. The only way for these regions to maintain their independence is to seek unity of action rather than hasty formations of formal political unions.

140C Sanwal, R.D."Agricultural extension in a Kumaonese Village," J. Dev. Stud., 1 (4), 1965: 384-398.

An account given of how innovations initiated by state-sponsored community development schemes may be blocked or fail for reasons other than the peasant's irrational and apathetic aversion to anything new, or the usual socio-cultural factors. This case study revealed that resistance was due to the failure of the novelty to provide the peasant with an adequate economic incentive to replace the traditional pattern. The historical development and the natural and social conditions of the village of Harsila in the Kumaon area, India, are outlined, and the effects of the community development scheme started in July 1953 are involved: (1) the use of improved varieties of seed; (2) the use of chemical fertilizers and green manure; (3) the sowing of wheat, corn and paddy in rows; (4) the adoption of the Japanese method of paddy cultivation; and (5) the erection of low walls around fields to prevent the loss of top soil. The development program failed because these innovations did not appear economically feasible to the peasants. Though the new methods increased the yield of food grains significantly, they made three harvests impossible. The purchase of improved seed varieties and fertilizers caused frustration and indebtedness. Extra labour had to be hired for weeding. After paying for seed, fertilizers, and labour, with the loss of the intermediate crop, the benefits of increased production were nullified. The peasants saw the solution of their problems not in the adoption of the suggested innovations, but in "open" forests, more land for pasturage and agriculture, or, alternatively, in the provision of opportunities to earn cash, preferably in the village itself.

140D Szereszewski, R., "The Process of Growth in Ghana, 1891-1911," J. Dev. Stud., 1 (2), 1965: 123-141.

1.014
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3.02

A number of special features make the experience of the Gold Coast during the two decades around the end of the last century a worthwhile case study in economic growth which may well have wider application. The striking magnitudes involved and the observable elements of structural change dispel some widely held views on the supposedly inherent immobility of underdeveloped economies. The main growth sector--cocoa farming--which had its repercussions on the whole economy was based on indigenous initiative and enterprise and involved a remarkable process of classic capital formation through capitalization of current labour inputs. The pattern of change was sufficiently simple to allow attention to be focussed on the essentials: the absorption of previously underutilized land and labour resources in new activities, and the substitution of relatively capital-intensive production for extraction as the dominant pattern of resource-use in the export sectors. The growth of Gross Domestic Product excluding traditional consumption was much more rapid than the aggregate; it was 7.6 % per annum, or 6.5% per capita. An analysis is made to expose the determinants of this pattern of growth.

It is clear that the expansion of economic activities originated largely in external trade. The growth of export trade was building up the Gross Domestic Product directly, and also indirectly through the distribution of imports, government revenues, capital formation in the export sectors, etc. The pattern of development was very labour-absorptive, i.e., the new levels of production (including the production of capital goods) were attained through a great increase in the flow of labour services forthcoming from the population. Only two branches of activity were based on concentrations of imported capital goods and high imported capital/labour ratios: gold mining and railways.

From examination of the economic and social situations, it seems that the pre-existing position was one of under-employment in the sense that the resources of the economy--land and labour--were at a low level of physical utilization determined by the preferences of the population for income and leisure and the available conversion rates between the two. Changes in the rates could be expected to release additional flows of labour services, increasing the level of utilization of other already available resources, with consequent increases in output. The hypothesis is that this change was brought about by sufficient inducement in the form of higher rates of remuneration for labour in the context of a relatively mobile population with fairly free access to land. The aforementioned suppositions are embodied in a model, consisting of a definition and two behavioural equations (all variables relate to yearly magnitudes). The hypothesis is tested by substituting the actual Gold Coast data. It is found closely to fit the actual performance.

This statistical process cannot, of course, capture all the complex influences at work; but it is shown to be a fair conclusion that new commodities, new transport facilities and higher rates of remuneration stimulated the micro units to re-allocate labour time between work and leisure. This brought out additional investment and export flows, which formed the autonomous component of aggregate demand in the economy. The exporting households and the people employed by new autonomous activities received and spent money, inducing distributive governmental and other services as the multiplier mechanism worked itself out. To some extent the intensity and the pattern of resulting activities influenced the exogenous elements of the following year, and the demonstration effects of money and commodity flows can be looked at as a force reshaping the indifference maps of households between goods and leisure.

141A Shorter, Fred C., "Capital Formation, Income Distribution and Technological Change in the Modernizing Village," J. East Pakistan Acad. Village Development, 1(6), February 1961: 1-6.

4.03 The East Pakistan Academy for Village Development is experimenting in the Kotwali development area with an approach to capital
4.10 formation involving both a reduction of income inequality and an increase of savings. The experiment is of significance in relation
4.17 to redistribution -- growth dilemma. On the basis of field observations and discussions at the Academy the author offers an economic
5.12 rationale of the experiment. Prior to modernization, the surplus of the village upper class is transferred to lower income groups for consumption or is exported beyond the village economy. Capital formation will occur within the village as part of a modernizing process which also involves technological improvement. The process requires innovators who have no alternative avenues of advancement, have the necessary confidence and motivation and have available the necessary "tools" for innovation. Middle farmers, organized in cooperatives can meet these requirements and advance their position. The process of introducing new technology involves redistribution of income and accumulation of agricultural capital. The role of the Academy and of village leadership in creating the necessary innovation drive merits further investigation.

141B Zaidi, W. H., "Attitude of Rural Population Towards Family Planning," J. East Pakistan Acad. Village Development, 1(6), 1961: 36-42.

1.022 This article describes the extent of the readiness of the people to restrict the number of their children, the socio-economic
5.07 characteristic of those desirous of family planning and those not desirous of restricting the number of their children. It shows that the attitude towards family planning is related to the age, education, number of members of the family, occupation of the persons, the longevity of their married life and the number of pregnancies. But this attitude is not statistically significant in regard to their income and land holdings. The article also describes the willingness of the persons to know more about family planning and their intention of practicing it.

141C Fairchild, Henry W., "Some Thoughts About Accumulating Capital for Rural Development," J. East Pakistan Acad. Village Development, 2(2), April 1962: 1-8.

1.022 4.03 4.05 4.17 5.08 In this article the author proposes a system for accumulating capital for investment in agriculture. The credit co-operative should adopt the same lending and collecting methods as used by the village money-lender of old but without the old money lender's faults. The loans should be used only for productive purposes. This would serve only as a partial solution to the problem of credit. The long range solution will be to educate the farmers to manage their own business. The co-operative system backed with educated members is the solution to the present rural economy.

141D Rahman, A. T. Rafiqur, "Training Program for Provincial Civil Servants," J. East Pakistan Acad. Village Development, 2(5), April 1962: 41-45.

1.022 7.03 7.19 In this article the training program for the field officers conducted by the East Pakistan Academy for Village Development for the past two and a half years is reviewed. For a successful training program for government officials the essential considerations are: (1) the relevance of the training with the job of the trainees; (2) the practical bias of the training; (3) the frequent and intimate contact between the trainees and the trainers and (4) the diversity in the training program.

141E Rahman, A. T. Rafiqur, "Villagers' Knowledge About Departmental Services," J. East Pakistan Acad. Village Development, 1(6), February 1961: 12-20.

1.022 7.03 7.13 7.232 This article summarizes a study on the villagers' knowledge of and their attitude towards the services and facilities provided by the departments concerned with nation building activity. The findings are: (1) that departmental service is neither quick nor in time; (2) that there is shortage of supplies when they are needed; (3) the claim that departmental seeds are better than local variety is not always proved by the demonstration; (4) except for agricultural development activity, people are least conversant with the programs of other nation building departments.

142A Benjamin, Harold R.W., "Agricultural Education in Different Stages of National Development," J. Econ. History, 22(4), December 1962: 547-554.

3.02 The worth of national systems of education is judged by the
roles they play in developing (1) the security, (2) productivity,
5.17 and (3) cultivation of the people. Each country is unique, but
it is possible to distinguish five levels of development in economic
6.08 growth, in education, in health protection, in welfare, and in
the rights of its people. When aid is given by a wealthier and
6.16 more advanced country to its less advanced neighbors, it is
important that the aid is appropriate to the level of development
of the particular country.

Propositions

No propositions.

143A Holmberg, Allen R., "Education Intervention in Peru," Journal of Education, 89(1058), September 1957: 381-384.

1.031 This is a report of the Director of the Cornell-Peru Project
in Vicos, Peru, on the role of formal and informal education
6.02 in this action-research program in community development among
Andean Indians.
6.03

6.14

144A Bachman, K.L., "Agricultural Economics and Technical Aid in Foreign Development," Journal Farm Econ., 47(5), December 1965: 1079-1090.

3.173 "United States agricultural economics has an important long-term interest in foreign economic development because of its important effects on the prosperity of the agricultural industry and interrelations with domestic programs. Agriculture is an important component of foreign economic development. Development of foreign agriculture along rational economic lines can greatly assist economic development and also promote the association between economic development and trade.

The record of foreign agricultural assistance to date has suffered from lack of attention to research and to the economics of agriculture. The time is ripe for a new perspective and for more effective organization in landgrant universities and the USDA with respect to foreign research, training, and technical assistance.

144B Feder, E., "Land Reform Under the Alliance for Progress," Journal Farm Econ., 47(3), 1965.

1.03 Although land reform is fundamental to the Alliance's plans for agricultural development in Latin America, careful evaluation
1.04 of its achievements and mechanics shows that after three years of operation, very few farmers have benefitted from the "reforms"
3.173 so far instigated. At the same time, the task of rehabilitating farm people having little or no land is growing at an alarming
4.14 rate. The best visible result of the Alliance seems to be the large number of land reform laws, but these have proved more effective in blocking rather than implementing large-scale reform. The principle of this development program, viz., the peaceful removal of social, economic, and political injustices in agriculture, conflict with the political realities of Latin America, and only perseverance and ingenuity can make the Alliance a successful test-case in the solution of the deeply rooted problem of redistributing wealth and power peacefully and for the common good.

144C Schultz, T.W., "Reflections on Teaching and Learning in Colleges of Agriculture," Journal Farm Econ., 47(1), 1965: 17-22.

6.06 The author challenges college and university faculties to take a hard, analytical look at their own job specifications in the light of the ultimate objective of university education. The objective is to help young people acquire a basis for building and rebuilding skills through a 50-year period to meet the demands of a rapidly changing society. The author's reflections lead him to believe that our specification biases result in our giving insufficient attention to the variance among students and the rate of obsolescence of material taught, and further in our placing too low a value on the time of both students and faculty.

Propositions

No propositions; policy proposals.

144D Snodgrass, M.M., "Teaching Problems in "Growing" Departments of Agricultural Economics Abroad--a Neglected Research Area," Journal Farm Econ. 47(5), December 1965: 1504-1509.

6.05 The author discusses the need to give attention to teaching problems. Some reasons why this area is neglected are suggested.
6.08 He concludes with four general recommendations.

144E Witt, L.W., "Role of Agriculture in Economic Development--A Review," Journal Farm Econ., 47(1), 1965: 120-131.

3.01 Significant shifts in the viewpoints expressed in the role of agriculture in economic development have occurred in the past
4.01 15 years. This article summarizes these views as they have evolved toward an emphasis on balanced development effort, with a recognition of the critical importance of the intersectoral relationships between agriculture and non-agriculture. Problems in increasing food production and expanding food marketing during development are discussed, and the specific contributions of the agricultural and non-agricultural sectors are identified. The article is directed principally to the non-specialists in economic development.

144F Bottomley, Anthony, "The Structure of Interest Rates in Underdeveloped Rural Areas," Journal Farm Econ., 46(2), 1964: 313-322.

4.05 This article sets forth the components of the rate of interest in underdeveloped rural areas. They are (1) the unit opportunity cost of the lender's raw material--money, (2) the administration charge on each unit loaned, (3) the unit premium for risk, and (4) any unit monopoly profit. The determinants of each one of these elements of the rate of interest are discussed, and suggestions are made regarding action which might reduce their size. The general conclusion is that the development of the farmer's collateral will allow him to borrow more at less risk to the lender, as well as put him in contact with the low interest, urban money market. This will in its turn help to reduce the unit administration costs on loans together with the lender's premium for risk, as well as tend to eliminate whatever monopoly profit the lender has been able to obtain. Only in this way can the rural rate of interest in poor countries be reduced.

Propositions

No propositions.

144G Hayami, Yujiro, "Demand for Fertilizer in the Course of Japanese Agricultural Development," Journal Farm Econ., 46(4), 1964: 766-779.

1.095
4.10
The study explores the historical dynamism of Japanese agriculture from the side of fertilizer demand. It is intended to extract lessons for today's emerging nations from Japan's experience of agricultural development. The causes of enormous increase in fertilizer input, which played a key role in raising agricultural productivity in Japan, are identified, and their contributions are measured on the basis of aggregative time-series data for the period 1883-1937. Using an approach similar to Griliches', estimates are provided to support the hypothesis of Herdt and Mellor postulated on United States — India comparative study.

Propositions

No propositions; this is strictly an economic argument showing that fertilizer consumption rose because its price declined relative to the price of farm products.

144H Randhawa, N.S., and E.O. Heady, "An Interregional Programming Model for Agricultural Planning in India," Journal Farm Econ., 46(1), February 1964: 137-149.

1.091
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"This paper includes development of an application of a linear programming model for agricultural planning in India. The objective is one of allocating production of 16 major crops among regions in a manner to maximize food output from a given collection of resources. Welfare economic restraints are included to assure that cultivators in all regions are left equally well or better off in income level."

144I Blackmore, J., "A Proposal--Research and Training in Foreign Agricultural Development," Journal Farm Econ., 45(3), August 1963: 558-562.

4.02 The author feels that American agriculturalists will continue to be involved in world agricultural problems. He presents a
6.06 proposed scheme for research and training.

144J Bottomley, Anthony, "Comments on 'The Process of Agricultural Development in Low-Income Countries,'" Journal Farm Econ., 45(2), May 1963: 446-448.

4.03 The author attacks Mellor's conclusions regarding economic development in low-income countries on several grounds, including:
4.09 (1) his views regarding the abundance of agricultural labor, (2) his assertion that the capital formed by the rural labor force is
4.12 already abundant, and (3) his reference to land on the extensive margin as a scarce resource.

Mellor contends that there is no basic disagreement between Bottomley's and his presentation. (Reply by J.W. Mellor, pp. 448-449.)

144K Schmid, A.A., "Sources of Economic Growth: The Importance of Institutional Change," Journal Farm Econ., 45(4), November 1963: 881-883.

4.17 This article advises researchers to be sensitive to the impact of institutional change upon economic development. Three
4.18 historical examples are given which support the author's contention.

144L Wharton, C.R., "Research on Agricultural Development in Southeast Asia," Journal Farm Econ., 45(5), December 1963: 1161-1174.

1.02 This article discusses what types of research are being done and by whom. An assessment is made of the deficiencies of present
4.02 research.

144M Economic Development, Journal Farm Econ., 44(5), December 1962: 1367-1422.

4.18 At the last annual meeting of the American Farm Economic Association, various reports were presented and discussed on this subject, namely: D.Ensminger spoke on "Overcoming the obstacles to farm economic development in the less-developed countries," with particular emphasis on conditions in India. R.K. Severin assessed possible future Soviet gains in "Realistic planning for Soviet agriculture." W.C. Scharlach and G.E. Schub in analyzing "The land market as a link between the rural and urban sectors of the economy" found that statistical results indicate that nonfarm influences are channelled into the agricultural land market through at least four variables: population density, transportation costs, property taxes, and agricultural wages on the labor market. R.D. Rehnberg and J.E. Stahl in the "Relationship of Puerto Rican agriculture to recent industrial development" stressed the development during the last decade. E. Rosenbaum spoke on "Cooley amendment loans--two case studies" (under U.S. Public Law 480, 25% of counterpart funds, resulting from grants of U.S. agricultural surpluses to foreign countries are used for loans).

144N Ensminger, D., "Overcoming the Obstacles to Farm Economic Development in the Less-developed Countries," Journal Farm Econ., 44(5), December 1962: 1367-1400.

3.172 Although purporting to discuss "economic development in the
less-developed areas", the author spends nearly all of this
3.173 article discussing the history of the Ford Foundation's programs
in India which he directs. The article covers pages 1367-1887
4.18 and is followed by comments from others: Simmge S. Hillman
(1387-1392), Roe R. Motheral (1392-1396), A.T. Mosher (1396-
1400). In these comments there is considerable diagreement concerning the efficacy of the author's remarks.

Propositions

No propositions.

144O Goering, T.J., "Public Law 480 in Colombia," Journal Farm Econ., 44(4), November 1962: 992-1004.

1.034 This article discusses the effect in Colombia of Public Law
480 providing for the domestic and foreign distribution of surplus
3.171 agricultural products. The author believes that it is probable that
the program has contributed to the country's economic growth.

144P Mellor, John W., "The Process of Agricultural Development in Low-income Countries," Journal Farm Econ., 44(3), August 1962: 700-716.

3.10 The author argues in some detail that agriculture has a crucial role of: (1) providing agricultural production to meet
4.03 the growth in demand generated by a growing population and rising per capita incomes, and (2) providing the labor force for expansion
4.07 of the non-farm sector of the economy are generally recognized. Perhaps as crucial is the role agriculture must play in: (3) pro-
4.09 viding capital for the economic transformation. This possibility is analyzed here and an effort is made to depict: (a) qualities of agriculture in low-income countries which tend to make its development a relatively low-cost or high-return process, (b) features which characterize the allocation process in programs of agricultural development, and (c) advantages of developing an existing agriculture as compared to new land programs.

Propositions

No propositions.

144Q Brewster, J.M., "Beliefs, Values and Economic Development," Journal Farm Econ., 43(4, pt. 1), November 1961: 779-796.

5.11 The central theme of this analysis has been that the dominant striving of people in all cultures is the aspiration to earn an
5.12 increasingly favorable image of themselves in their own eyes and in the eyes of others. The key step in the rise of our own economically dynamic Western society was a revolutionary shift to the belief that no amount of riches can exempt one from the responsibiltiy to be as proficient as possible in any employment which he believes expresses his productive potential. Once this shift in beliefs was accomplished, economic incentives became effective inducements to increasingly productive effort over and above the limits imposed by any conceivable level of customary wants.

Propositions

(1) If a people believe that dependence on economic employment is indisputable evidence that one lacks the capacities of mind and character that entitle him to higher positions, then economic growth will be inhibitied.
Evidence: Unsubstantiated.

5.12 (2) If a people believe that proficiency in economic as well as noneconomic employment is the appropriate way of earning an even higher valuation of himself in the eyes of others and in his own eyes, then economic growth will be stimulated.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

144R Eicher, Carl K., "Discussion: Training Needs for American Technical-Assistance Specialists Abroad," Journal Farm Econ., 43(5), December 1961: 1052-1055.

3.173 Eicher agrees with Middaugh's proposed changes in emphasis
in the academic training of American technicians employed in
6.06 technical assistance work in developing countries and points out
that special training problems might be reduced if higher employment
6.08 standards were adopted. However, this might make it more
difficult to obtain employees in occupations such as agricultural economics and irrigation engineering where a shortage exists. The author suggests that ICA establish an applied research branch to inquire into economic and social changes in order to provide information that will enable generalists to do a more effective job. To induce first-rate professors to accept overseas assignments it is proposed that arrangements should be made for career technicians who have served overseas for several years to return to an American University to spend a year in teaching, study, and research.

144S Hillamn, Jimmeye S., "Problems of Increasing Agricultural Productivity in Less Advanced Countries," Journal Farm Econ., 43(1), May 1961: 320-332.

4.03 To discover some determinants of potential agriculture
productivity and to discover conditions under which productivity
4.07 is actually increased and effective are two different matters.
Orthodox theory is most at home in analyzing the productivity
4.18 response when the factors are combined under a situation of scarcity.
Instead, in the agriculture of developing countries, are encountered a "set of opportunities which are embodied in the resources, the labor, the existing capital, and the potentially useable knowledge. But these in themselves do not spell increased productivity. Enterprise, institutional disparities, and attitudes toward private and social production will influence agricultural productivity more than will the so-called set of opportunities.

Propositions

4.07 (1) If markets are small and social costs of market services are
high, then monopolistic market conditions will alter both
4.18 conditions.
Evidence: Unsubstantiated.

4.07 (2) If state intervention in the market system does not recognize
the interdependence of functional segments in agriculture,
7.231 then the intervention will be economically unsound.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

4.12 (3) If the physical limits of land expansion have been reached
and farms are small, then productivity will be limited.
4.18 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

4.03 (4) If the ratio of resources to people is improved and the
quantity of capital is "sufficient," then productivity does
4.12 not necessarily increase.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.
4.18

144T Mann, H.S., "The Problems of Teaching Agricultural Economics in India," Journal Farm Econ., 43(5), December 1961: 1549-1550.

1.021 The problems of students, curricula, and teachers of agricul-
tural economics are analyzed and proposals are made for streng-
6.08 thening the program for the teaching of agricultural economics at
the graduate and undergraduate level. It is suggested that universities in India make provision for the master of science degree in agricultural economics, besides the Master of Arts economics degree, and the Ph.D. program strengthened but limited to universities with adequate staff and library facilities. A regular program of summer seminars in Asian universities with the cooperation of American universities would be mutually beneficial.

144U Middaugh, W.S., "Training Needs for American Technical-Assistance Specialists Abroad," Journal Farm Econ., 43(5), December 1961: 1046-1052.

6.06 The paper was based on experience with approximately 1300
agricultural specialists involved in providing technical assistance
6.08 in sixty countries. It reviews the type of training and experience

7.173 sought when recruiting and points out the two major deficiencies; namely, the lack of understanding of the agricultural institutions that are the foundation for agricultural development and the inability to speak a foreign language. The paper recounts the orientation and the in-service training programs in operation. The proposal is made for a course dealing with the two areas which need the most attention; (1) the factors that motivate change in practices, and (2) an understanding of personality traits to help an individual correct his weakness in foreign technical assistance work.

144U Paiva, Ruy Miller, "The Development of Brazilian Agriculture, 1945-1960," Journal Farm Econ., 43(5), December 1961: 1092-1100.

1.032
4.02
4.07
4.11

Within the "domestic consumption products," the foodstuffs, production in Brazil increased from 38.4 em 1945 to 113.4 em 1960 (index numbers, 1958=100) and the raw material for industry output rose from 70.6 to 109.6. In the class of the "export products" there was no increase, except in coffee. The influence that the changes in real prices have played in the output of each class is examined, especially the effect of foreign exchange policy on the prices of the exportable product. Also described are the main changes that have occurred in agriculture and marketing technique in this period; and finally, certain considerations are furmulated on developments that may occur in the near future in agriculture output in the improved level of agricultural technique, and in the land tenure system.

144V Pasto, Jerome K., "The Role of Farm Management in Underdeveloped Countries," Journal Farm Econ., 43(3), August 1961: 606-615.

4.16 In this paper the thesis is advanced that in the economic development of primarily agricultural economies the most lucrative place to employ labor more fully and productively is on the farms. This improvement in resource management on the farm would also step up total food production. If food production can be raised, and technically and economically the author holds it to be possible, he maintains that the additional food can be combined with excess labor and both converted to the task of capital formation. To do this it is necessary to improve tht use of farm resources, including farm labor. The author concludes by stating that this is where farm management, in both research and extension, can make a great contribution to economic development.

144X Schultz, Theodore W., "U.S. Endeavors to Assist Low-Income Countries Improve Economic Capabilities of their People," Journal Farm Econ., 43(5), December 1961: 1068-1070.

6.04 6.05 6.16 The importance of the human factor in economic growth in low-income countries is the main thesis of this article. The author believes that much more attention needs to be given to education especially on the elementary and secondary level before much success can be expected from our programs in underdeveloped areas. Investment in education can no longer be considered consumption but holds a high priority as necessary investment capital. "The abundance of a modern agriculture and industry is not to be had by a people who are predominantly illiterate and unskilled." A discussion is included.

144Y Mortensen, Erik, "Impact and Implications of Foreign Surplus Disposal on Developed Economies and Foreign Competitors. The Competitors' Perspective," Journal Farm Econ., 42(5), December 1960: 1052-1062.

3.172 A paper given at the annual meeting of The American Farm Economic Association 1960. Though the author to a great extent deals with U.S. Public Law 480, he does not restrict himself to considering U.S. surplus disposals but treats disposals of surpluses in general.

144Z Walker, D., "A Note on the Economic Development of East African Agriculture," Journal Farm Econ., 42(4), November 1960: 871-878.

1.01 4.01 4.11 4.12 This note discusses East African agriculture in the context of a previous Journal article by S.D. Neumark. Three major topics are considered: (1) resources, (2) subsistence production, and (3) the development process.

144AA Wharton, C.R., "The Economic Impact of Technical Assistance: A Brazilian Case Study," Journal Farm Econ., 42(2), May 1960: 252-267.

1.032 3.173 Increased output and greater production efficiency were the measures used to analyze the economic impact of technical assistance. The author cautions that "a most serious reservation about the entire study concerns the reliability of the data...." The study indicates that the most dramatic results of the technical assistance (including credit) program were achieved in an area of semi-subsistence agriculture, relatively isolated from sources of new technological information. But in another area within the same state (Minas Gerais, Brazil) where agriculture was more commercialized and where new technological information was available from several sources, data indicated that the assistance program had no effect on efficiency.

144BB Berg, S.O., "University Training in Agricultural Economics for Foreign Students," Journal Farm Econ., 41(5), December 1959: 1373-1383.

6.06
6.08 Since education of foreign students is considered worth doing, it is worth doing well. The success in the cooperative international exchange of knowledge and skills is dependent upon a host of factors, including early identification and selection of talented scholars; assistance in adjusting students to our cultural and academic life; the development of a balanced graduate program of study, pursuing not only theoretical concepts and the acquisition of practical methods, but also, in the true university concept, the integration of these with other study in terms of the broader implications and social obligations; and, finally, the active encouragement and maintenance of professional and personal ties among agricultural economists of various nations.

Propositions

6.06
6.08 (1) If foreign students are offered a balanced approach to agricultural economics (balanced between theory and practical application), then there "needs" will be met.
Evidence: Assertion.

144CC Cook, Hugh, L., "Observations on Market Structures and National Economic Development in the Philippines," Journal Farm Econ., 41(3), August 1959: 500-518.

1.026
3.08
4.07 Market structure analysis is an undeveloped tool of economic growth theory. This paper (1) furnishes data not generally available on agricultural market structures in the Philippines, (2) contains some observations on progress in agricultural industry segments, with reference to the goals of economic development, and (3) speculates on the market structures which might promote development at a more rapid rate.

144DD Darrah, L.B., "Preparing Foreign Students to Study Farm Economic Problems in their own Countries," Journal Farm Econ., 41(5), December 1959: 1384-1392.

6.06 6.08 There is a basic difference between training in agricultural economics and training to study farm economic problems--i.e., to conduct significant research. Foreign students may become well-educated in the field of agricultural economics, and still be unable to conduct economic studies of value in their own countries. Our basic problem in training foreign students in research is our failure to understand conditions in foreign countries and to appreciate differences in points of view between the people with whom we conduct research and the people with whom students from other lands must work. To develop a useful research program in agricultural economics requires, first of all, that research workers must be familiar with their agriculture. Second, to develop a good research program, students must be able to select important problems on which to work, to select appropriate research methods, to obtain the necessary data, and to analyze them properly. We must recognize that our resources and our agriculture are vastly different from those in other countries and strive to make our educational programs more meaningful for students from other lands if we are to do a respectable and useful job of training them.

Propositions

6.06 6.08 (1) If instructors (American) do not understand the differential conditions of foreign countries, then education of foreign students will be impaired.
Evidence: Assertion.

4.18 (2) If the level of literacy is low, then the implementation of new agricultural techniques will be impaired.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

4.10 4.18 (3) If the culture to be changed values social rather than economic aspects of life, then the implementation of new agricultural techniques will be impaired.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

4.10 4.18 (4) If the culture to be changed has a social system in which the rewards for individual initiative are shared widely rather than credited to the individual, then the implementation of new agricultural techniques will be impaired.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

4.18 (5) If a structure is lacking which is responsible for transmitting research results to the people, then the implementation of new agricultural techniques will be impaired.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

144EE Wernimont, K., "Agricultural Development in Latin America," Journal Farm Econ., 41(5), December 1959: 1358-1362.

1.03 1.04 4.11 There is a substantial body of knowledge about Latin America, the collection and analysis of which has been greatly accelerated during the last twenty years. Statistical analysis of the agricultural situation is still based on fragmentary information, much of it the result of not very precise guessing on the part of experts and, occasionally, biased politicians. Nevertheless, the broad outlines are reliable and the dynamics of change are everywhere unmistakable. The agricultural economist will be called upon for substantial contributions all the way along the line from individual farm management to national planning.

Propositions

No propositions.

144FF Ezekiel, Mordecai, "Apparent Results in Using Surplus Food for Financing Economic Development," Journal Farm Econ., 40(4), November 1958: 915-923.

1.172 While the evidence thus far shows no conclusive proof that the disposal of surpluses for economic development can help recipient countries, and can do so without harming other exporters of the products involved, neither does it prove the contrary. Rather it does suggest that under favorable conditions and good administration in the recipient countries, quite good results may be secured in both respects. To what extent other surplus disposal agreements have been equally well conceived and operated, only further study can tell.

144GG Yudelman, Montague, "Some Issues in Agricultural Development in Iraq," Journal Farm Econ., 41(1), February 1958: 78-88.

1.244 4.03 This article examines first public investment policy in a general development program designed to increase the supply and to improve the quality of some of the factors of production, and

7.231 second analyzes the returns to those factors. It would seem advisable to strike a better balance between investment in physical and human resources.

144HH Motheral, J.R., "Land Tenure in the Philippines," Journal Farm Econ., 38, May 1956: 465-474.

1.026 This article describes the major features of Philippine land
tenure. Concentration is upon the characteristics of the extant
4.14 system, but reference is made to historical development.

144II Parson, K.H., "Basic Elements in the World Land Tenure Problems," Journal Farm Econ., 38, May 1956: 430-437.

4.14 In this article many different aspects of land tenure are considered. The author concludes with four general principles regarding land tenure.

144JJ Moore, C.A., "Agricultural Developments in Mexico," Journal Farm Econ., 37(1), February 1955: 72-80.

1.043 This article discusses the question of "how much of the in-
crease in agricultural production in Mexico is to be explained by
4.11 the use of additional resources, and how much of it has come from
improvements in the state of the productive arts." A 60% increase
4.16 in agricultural output is described. About 26% of this increase is
attributed to increased inputs and the remainder to increased
productivity.

144KK Barlowe, R., "Land Reform and Economic Development," Journal Farm Econ., 37, May 1953: 173-187.

4.14 The plan of this paper is to: "(1) examine the general nature
and importance of land reform; (2) classify the principal types
4.18 of land reform that are current in the world today; and (3) analyze
the general effect that these reform programs may have upon
economic development."

Propositions

No propositions.

145A Van der Kroef, Justus M., "The Education Unemployed in SouthEast Asia," Journal of Higher Education, 31, April 1960: 177-184.

1.02 The tendency for underdeveloped countries to have educational
systems which are not geared to the demands of modern economic
5.11 development is a great waste of educated manpower and in cases may
actually lead to a drain of educated people from the country. The
6.06 fact that a college degree is a status symbol influences the
students' plans for a future occupation. Careers are often chosen
on the basis of the status derived from the degree rather than on
the basis of the usefulness of the occupationl. The result is
large numbers of unemployed educated people and expanding government
bureaucracies and possible large-scale outmigration of the
educated in the future. The fact that degrees are earned for the
status they carry leaves these underdeveloped countries with a
severe shortage of technologists and other middle-level occupations,
thus perpetuating unemployment because economic growth is
hindered.

Propositions

1.02 (1) If large numbers of students seek degrees in law or the social
sciences for prestigious reasons, economic development will
5.11 be hampered. (Pp. 177-178.)
Evidence: Example of India.
6.06

1.02 (2) Economic development in new nations is inhibited by the lack
of "qualified technicians in middle-level employment cate-
6.05 gories." (P. 179.)
Evidence: Analysis of unbalanced education in developing
6.07 countries. (P. 179.)

1.02 (3) The status of a degree-holder who must work at a more menial
occupation because of the wide-spread idea that "times are
5.062 bad" is not as low as it would be if he had deliberately
chosen that occupation and this may ultimately hinder economic
6.06 development, since the status does not vary with the occupa-
tion but is attached to the degree.
Evidence: Same as in number 1.

146A Adieseshiah, Malcolm, "UNESCO in Africa," J. Hum. Relat., 10(2-3), 1962: 216-226.

1.01
6.05
6.14

The emergence of Africa on the world scene, and its requirements in the field of education, are discussed. The results of the 1961 Education Conference at Addis Ababa rendered a qualitative and quantitative view of African education and its needs, up to 1980. The Addis Ababa Plan gives priority to secondary education to train the needed personnel. It also asks for increasing allocations of natural resources to education over the next 20 years. The United States and all member nations of UNESCO are called on to commit themselves to the building of African education. The short and long-term costs of the project are calculated. The program would cover all realms of education from textbooks to adult education to school construction. The role of UNESCO in helping to maintain African cultural systems while changing educational standards, is stressed.

146B Akin Deko, G., "Agriculture in Western Nigeria," J. Hum. Relat., 10(1), Autumn 1961: 49-51.

1.012
4.11
3.16
7.231

This paper by the Minister of Agriculture and Natural Resources of the Western Region of Nigeria deals with the new agricultural policy of the country. The aim is both to put Nigerian produce on the world market by continuously and consistently improving the methods of husbandry used and also to produce sufficient food for home consumption and improve its quality.

146C Fayemi, Boye, "The Role of Agriculture in an Independent Nigeria," J. Hum. Relat., 10(1), Autumn 1961: 43-48.

1.012
4.10
4.17
6.04
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6.14

The author criticizes the agricultural development of Nigeria under British colonial rule, which he maintains was directed simply to the benefit of the colonial power. He maintains that little or no technical guidance was available to the Nigerian farmer and that the educational system was grossly inadequate. He holds that colossal progress has been made in every sector of the national economy since 1952 when the power and leadership changed from foreign hands to the indigenous people.

147A Akpan, E. E., "The Development of Local Government in Eastern Nigeria," J. Local Adm. Overseas, 4(2), April 1965; 118-127.

1.012 The nationalistic feelings in Nigeria in the 1940's called for
a reform in political organization and government; it was hoped that
7.21 the introduction of a popularly elected local government would
improve the situation. In 1950 the Eastern Nigeria Local Government Law was passed by the central legislature. This article deals with the consequent distribution and control of powers (for local authorities cannot be really independent), the external structure of the local government system (Minister/Ministry -- Municipalities, Urban C. C., County Councils, Local Councils -- Local Government Commissioner), and the internal organization, management, and economic viability of the local units.

147B Ferguson, C. G., "The Study of Development in Malaya (Malaysia) -- Some Aspects," J. Local Adm. Overseas, 4(3), July 1965: 149-164.

1.029 The author deals first with the Malayan background of the
Emergency period, the basic thinking that was behind the schemes
4.06 for development introduced after 1960, and the defects of past
government administration and development; then with the leadership
7.23 behind the initial decisions and Directives. In particular, the
"Red Book" system has proved a great success, and the general achievements of the Malaysian Development Plan are now visible.

147C Fuller, C., and R. Chambers, "Training for the Administration of Development in Kenya," J. Local Adm. Overseas, 4(2), April 1965: 109-117.

1.016 When one realizes that the per capita income in Kenya is £29
(in England it is £450), one sees why the role of the administrative
7.03 officer is allied to the Government's efforts to raise the standard
of living of the people. The officer must therefore possess not
7.19 only the basic administrative skills, but also understand the theory
and practice of the administration of development. To provide
7.21 appropriate training, the six advanced public administration courses
held at the Kenya Institute of Administration have dealt with economic theory, natural resources, planning and statistics, the development of the national economy; there are also District Development projects as part of the APA course. By such means training for the administration of development can be concentrated on the concrete problems of improving the daily lives of the ordinary peasants and herdsmen who are still the great majority of the people of Africa.

147D Hannigan, A. St. J., "The Role of Rural Local Government in an Independent Kenya," J. Local Adm. Overseas, 4(3), July 1965: 165-172.

1.016 Newly independent African states have tended to rely on central
control in their haste and there may be the tendency to use local
7.18 councils for unremunerative services, thus off-loading the central
financial burden instead of allowing them to play a part in the
7.19 social and economic development of the country. In Kenya, under
the 1963 constitutional arrangements, there may be financial
7.21 independence from the centrall government, but the various changes
that have been made since independence have not yet given the local
authorities a real role in the scheme of development; to allow
these authorities to flourish they must be given an active part in
overall development.

147E Heisler, H., "Continuity and Change in Zambian Administration," J. Local Adm. Oversead, 4(3), July 1965: 183-193.

1.125 The policy of the Zambian Government (Northern Rhodesian until
October 1964) towards local administration became clear as a result
7.18 of two organization decisions made in 1964: (1) The Ministry of
Local Government assumed responsibility for rural local government.
7.21 (2) The inauguration of Provincial and District Government whereby
Commissioners were replaced by Resident Secretaries and District
Secretaries. Two further changes disturbed the old-new continuity:
the new Secretaries were more directly subject to political control
than were the Commissioners they replaced, and the Ministry of
Justice and a corps of magistrates assumed the judicial functions
of the erstwhile district officers while the Police Force was to
take increased responsibility for maintaining order. The major
task of the Provincial and District Governments will be to co-
ordinate the work of the technical departments under the general
guidance of Under-Ministers who are responsible to President Kaunda.
These Under-Ministers will not involve themselves in the adminis-
tration of the civil service nor will they be entrusted with
statutory powers. The native authority system of 1947-1964 was not
ideal but was a form of transitional local administration which has
made the task of democratic local government in the future some-
what easier. There have been two lines of continuity in Zambia:
thefield administration of the central government and the search for
a local government system which is both a good instrument
development and is representative.

147F Wraith, R. E., "Community Development in Nigeria," J. Local Admin. Overseas, 3(2), 1964: 92-102.

1.012 The particular community-development problems of Nigeria, with
its marked regional and cultural differences, are examined in the
5.08 light of the definition of community development as "a movement
designed to promote the voluntary participation of the people themselves
in efforts to improve their level of living with as much
reliance as possible on their own initiative, self help and mutual
help, and make these more effective".

147G Plant, H. T., "Local Government and Community Development in Rural Areas of Papua and New Guinea," J. Local Admin. Overseas, 3(2), April 1964: 107-113.

1.024 Local government is relatively new in Papua and New Guinea, the
first councils not being established until late in 1950; now there
7.19 are 51 councils representing almost 400,000 people (600,000 by end
of 1964). By comparison, emphasis has not been placed (as in many
7.21 other dependent territories) on a parallel scheme of community
development, and the development and application of special techniques
in this field. The rapid post-war changes in Papua and New
Guinea, in the social, economic and political fields, have brought
severe social strain; it is necessary to interest native leaders
(both traditional and modern) in progress, to channel their
activities in the right directions, and alleviate the strains on
their society. The methods known as "community development" are
now widely recognized as the most appropriate in these situations.
There is a close link between local government and community
development -- the two tasks are interrelated, and the success
with which the aims of either can be achieved depends largely upon
the degree to which the activities of the various departments
concerned with development can be co-ordinated at the various levels
of community.

147H Chakravarti, S. S., "Community Development, Planning and Administration at Local Level in India," J. Local Admin. Overseas, 2(4), October 1963: 212-221.

1.021 The Indian experiment in "planned social change" involves
substantial changes in the sturcture of government, including the
5.08 establishment of new administrative areas. If community development
is to achieve its aim of the development of the individual
5.08 and the community, certain imperatives of planning and administration
at the local level emerge: (1) planning must be a democratic

7.03 social process; (2) it must be a problem-solving process; (3) it must be a meaningful process which is both comprehensive and inte-
7.21 grating. Implicit in the whole process of planning is the growth of the community gaining enhanced ability to act together. The basic program has been the translation of policy objectives into action programs -- the gap still remains. The changes in the local administrative structure, techniques and objective are: (a) civil servants previously accountable only to the State governments are now accountable to the panchayati raj; (b) they have been moved from administration to politics; (c) panchayati raj has to function within the built-in safeguards against arbitrary and discriminatory action on the part of local authorities; (d) the system has highlighted the need for growth in competence of technical functionaries; (e) the role of supervision has become crucial; (f) the relationship between panchayati raj and community development has to be clearly understood to give meaning and focus to local planning and administration. Unless panchayati raj can create harmony and balance between political leaders and administrators, inculcate a sense of social responsibility, promote economic and social reforms, and assume leadership of the community as a whole, it cannot be the means of achieving community development.

1471 "Kenya Constitution -- II. The Present and Future Patterns of Public Authorities," J. Local Admin. Overseas, 2(3), July 1963: 162-166.

1.016 Under the present Constitution, three-quarters of all public expenditure is directly undertaken by the central government --
7.03 on defence, administration of justice and of the police, prisons, basic agricultural, veterinary and other economic services. The
7.18 present functions of local government services are less definable (with the exception of sanitary services, urban road works,
7.21 lighting, markets, housing, cemeteries) in the fields of education, health, trunk and secondary roads, water supplies, forestry, where
7.23 various forms of complexity are displayed. First, there exist two distinct patterns of local government with differing statutory responsibilities; second, there are a number of *ad hoc* bodies outside the normal pattern of government; third, there are differences in the quality and range of services provided by local authorities nominally of the same class. Regional assemblies and administrations will replace provincial and district administrations, and will be responsible for recurrent expenditure comparable to that remaining to the central government after the changes. Tables illustrate (1) recurrent expenditure of Central Government and Local Authorities, 1962-1963; (2) distribution of estimated recurrent expenditure 1962-1963 between new public authorities.

147J Rougevin-Baville, M., "The Organization and Content of Training for Public Administration in Africa," J. Local Admin. Overseas, 2(3), July 1963: 123-136.

1.01 A shortened version of a report prepared for UNESCO. The content is under several heads: (1) the organization of the teach-
6.06 ing of public administration; (2) the contents of the curriculum -- methods and curriculum; (3) general conclusions. Local circum-
7.03 stances will affect the method and content of instruction and it would be difficult to formulate a doctrine applicable to the whole of Africa.

147K Warrell-Bowring, W. J., "The Reorganization of the Administration in Tanganyika," J. Local Admin. Overseas, 2(4), October 1963: 188-194.

1.122 The political leaders in the newly independent African terri- tories have shown no inclination to reduce the exercise of control
7.03 by the central government; their object has been to control the machinery of government, not to change it. Since Tanganyika
7.19 became independent in December 1961, very few changes in the organization of government departments have been introduced; the notable exception is the re-organization of the former provincial administration. Policy decisions were the source of these changes: (1) the need, for a variety of reason, to transfer certain responsibilities from the district commissioners; (2) the wish of the government to replace the administrator by a political appointee. The political appointment is aimed at preserving a sense of unity through persuasion. In the future a system like the French Prefectorial system might be introduced, but careful selection and training of administrative talent would be necessary. Such a system would present restraints while permitting the government at local level to be represented by a personality of known political loyalty. This latter quality is considered to be of paramount importance by the government, so that a well-tried system which incorporates the political administrator deserves close attention.

147L Warriner, Doreen, "Observations on Land Reform Administration in Egypt," J. Local Admin. Overseas, 2(2), 1963: 100-111.

1.133 In carrying out the agrarian reform, promulgated in 1962, two main problems have arisen: enforcing the law, and organizing
4.14 compulsory cooperatives in which the new proprietors have been organized. Some are inherent in the country's conditions. By mid-
4.17 1961 only 7% of the total cultivated area has been redistributed,

but its effects on the agrarian structure have not been negligible. However, holdings with less than one feddan (0.42 hectare) still represent 70% of all properties. Experiments with supervised co-operatives have been successful so far. Egypt's policy of land reform has been more evolutionary and less revolutionary than it first appeared.

147M Anstey, V., "Land Reform in India," J. Local Administration Overseas, 1(2), 1962: 88-96.

1.021 After a summary of Indian land systems under British rule (zamindari and ryotwari settlements), the author discusses the
4.14 Indian land reform movement, the introduction of legislation from 1947 onward in one state after another, the abolition of zamindari, the tenancy reforms (including substantial reductions in rents; security of tenure and facilities for the purchase of land for certain classes of tenants; and ceilings on land holdings). In an appraisal of land reforms, the present situation is criticized and suggestions for improvement are made.

147N Greenwood, A. F., "Ten Years Local Government in Ghana," J. Local Admin. Overseas, 1(1), January 1962: 23-28.

1.014 A recent new Local Government Act (Ghana) has consolidated the law relating to local government in general and incorporates
7.19 the amending legislation over the last ten years; it is appropriate now to note the major developments since 1951, to indicate the
7.21 present position, and to examine the possibilities of future developments. Four of the most significant 1951-1961 changes are: (1) the separation of traditional authority from local authority; (2) the diversity of rates; (3) the reduction in the number of authorities and the abolition of the tier system; (4) the withdrawal of government agents from the field. The administrative structure and the financial structures of local government are described and analysed.

148A Goldman, Marshall I., "Retailing in the Soviet Union," *J. Market.*, 24 (4), April 1960: 9-15.

1.06 There are three main trade networks: government or state
shops, cooperative stores, and *kolkhoz* (collective farm markets).
3.08 The government and cooperative trade networks have their own
administrative, wholesale, and supply systems. As in the United
4.07 States, the basic pattern of distribution is from factory to
wholesale agency to retailer to consumer. The wholesale and retail
organizations are controlled by the same parent organization. The
government trade network is limited almost solely to urban areas;
the cooperatives cater mostly to the rural districts; collective
farm markets sell in both, but only food products. All are under
the supervision of the ministries of trade, one for each republic.
Government stores are either specialized or department stores.
Workers Supply Departments are attached to the factories. There
are almost 7,000 drugstores, and 6,000+ newspaper stands. The
kolkhoz markets play an important part in food distribution; they
are outlets for the surplus of the collective farms. Commission-trade stores are under the control of the cooperatives and accept,
on a commission basis, agricultural products from the farms. This
allows the peasant to market his surplus without leaving his
fields. Soviet stores are open on Sundays and closed on Mondays.
There are 1,500 self-service stores in operation. There is also a
state mail-order service.

Propositions

No propositions; description of retail outlets in the USSR.

148B Levitt, Theodore, "Growth and Profits through Planned Marketing Innovation," *J. Market.*, 24 (4), April 1960: 1-8.

3.01 Marketing is the stepchild of most modern corporations. While
there are product resources and development departments everywhere,
3.08 departments specifically charged with investing and developing
marketing innovations hardly exist. Yet profits can be increased
by savings in the marketing of a product while giving better
services to customers. A marketing development task force should
be created and it should be a top-management responsibility. The
most difficult task is the selection of the members of this force.
It must not be part of sales management, but completely independent
of it. The members should be energetic people who have no interests
in perpetuating the present marketing scheme. They must be at home
in the world of ideas and have an active interest in the physical,

social and life sciences, in aesthetics, mass culture and technology. The task force should report to the marketing vice-president, submit its ideas in writing and obtain permission to test them in carefully selected areas under their own complete control.

Propositions

No propositions.

148C Copulsky, W., "Forecasting Sales in Underdeveloped Countries," J. Market., 24 (1), July 1959: 36-40.

3.01 Marketing studies in underdeveloped countries have been neglected in favor of studies of manufacturing and construction;
3.08 planning errors result. Use of marketing research techniques can reduce differences between productive capacity and demand.
4.07 Discusses five phases of economic develppment, describes main areas of activity for each and uses these as criteria in classifying presently-developing countries. Discusses problems in marketing research and forecasting involved in developing impact of each phase on demand for various classes of products.

149A Becket, James, "Land Reform in Chile," J. Inter-American Studies, 5(2), April 1963: 177-211.

1.035 After reviewing the historical background of land tenure in Chile since the Spanish conquest, the author of this article des-
4.14 cribes present land use and the reasons for agrarian reform, emphasizing aspects of social and political structure. The last part of this work is devoted to Chile's agrarian reform law of November 1962 and to the first activities of the "Corporacion de la Reforma Agraria."

150A Qutub, Ishaq Y., "The Co-Operative Societies as an Institution of Change in Rural Jordan," *J. Pakistan Acad. Rur. Develop.*, 3(3), January 1963: 162-181.

1.241 This is an analytic study of cooperative societies in a developing Arab country — Jordan. Cooperatives are new institutions
4.17 in rural societies, and they have existed for a decade beside the traditional institutions, such as the family, the school, the
5.08 mosque (or Church) and the madafeh (guest house). The villages of Jordan are classified into three typologies: (1) villages of the East Bank of the River Jordan, (2) of the West Bank of the River Jordan, and (3) front line villages situated along the Arab-Israeli border line. Each typology has special socio-economic organization. This division is applied on the notion of H. Becker's "sacred-secular" continuum, with special focus on the position of cooperative societies in the three types of villages and where each type fits on the continuum. The cooperative societies, viewed as a social system interacting with other institutions in the village, are agents of change in rural societies. The cooperatives are modern institutes voluntarily accepted by villagers. Consequently, the villagers' socio-economic structure and function is being gradually changed from traditional to that with a modern element inherent in it.

150B Qutut, Ishaq Y., "Social Change in Rural Jordan," *J. Pakistan Acad. Rur. Develop.*, 4(1), July 1963: 1-10.

1.241 Rural Jordan is in a state of transition — feudalism, traditionalism, and social reform exist side by side. The villager
5.08 accepts change to the degree that it does not interfere with his social identification. There are physical, social, and psychological
5.11 barriers that impinge on the life of villagers, especially in the conflicting values beteeen urban life and the traditions and customs of ancestors. One outstanding feature of change in village society is the social class structure. Out of the closed village society, a new educated elite is being formed. The number of educated young villagers has been increasing in the last decade, due to government policy in providing opportunities for education and acceptance in civil service jobs. There has been an increased attention towards rural area in governmental, social, and agricultural services, — elements producing change in rural societies. The villager is considered as the mobile link between the less nomadic tribes and the highly developed system of modern organization.

1500 Shuler, Edgar A., "Role of Pakistan Academy for Village Development," J. Pakistan Acad. Rur. Develop., 3(1), July 1962: 28-31.

1.022 "The ultimate objective of the Academy is to contribute significantly...to the modernization of Pakistan:...the effort is
5.08 confined primarily to East Pakistan." The training of government officers is a means to the stated end. But before they can be
6.08 trained to perform their new duties — the trainers must master their own uncharted job. This is being undertaken at Comilla through experimentation and research leading to a living human laboratory demonstration with the people of Comilla Kotwali Thana (county). Currently the three key modernizing institutions are the village cooperative societies, the agencies of local government, and the educational institutions. The Academy's planned modernizing function is identified as part of the revolutionary democratizing processes "whose major visible and dramatic turning points...(are) the American, the French, the Russian and the Chinese revolutions." "It appears that the conception and achievement of the Comilla model have drawn for inspiration and example on such leaders in the world-wide cooperative movement as Bishop Grundtvig of Denmark and F. W. Raiffeisen of Germany, and the St. Francis Xavier University at Antigonish in Nova Scotia....In due time...the Academy may well emerge as the prototype of a Pakistani version of the United States' land-grant college system."

151A Nicholls, William H., "An ' Agricultural Surplus' as a Factor in Economic Development," Journal Polit, Econ., 71(1), 1963: 1-29.

3.01 The author defines an "agricultural surplus" as the physical
amount by which, in any given country, total food production
4.01 exceeds the total food consumption of the agricultural population.
At the outset, he argues that most economists have seriously under-
4.11 estimated the importance of such an agricultural suuplus as a factor in economic development. He seeks to correct this situation by presenting some partial analytical models, using only graphic techniques familiar from production economic theory, which focus on the central concept of an agricultural surplus. He gives special attention to determinants of the size, and potential contributions to economic growth, of the agricultural surplus under various conditions of population pressure and under different systems of land tenure.

The analysis first considers at length the place of an agricultural surplus in the economic development of an "underpopulated" country, characterized by relatively plentiful land and a marginal product of agricultural labor equal to or greater than the subsistence wage. It deals separately with a one-sector (food) and a two-sector (food and industrial crop) agricultural economy and, within the one-sector agriculture, distinguishes between an equalitarian system of farm owner-operators and an oligarchic landlord-tenant system.

The analysis then turns to the consideration of the potential contributions of an agricultural surplus to the economic development of a seriously "overpopulated" country, in which the marginal product of agricultural labor is less than the subsistence wage. Here, as in the first part, important distinctions are made, depending upon whether the land-tenure system is one of peasant small-holders or one of landlords and tenants.

Throughout an attempt is made to relate the analysis to different historical situations and to indicate important policy implications, if agriculture is to be a positive generating force, not a needless drag, on general economic development.

151B Becker, Gary S., "Investment in Human Capital: A Theoretical Analysis," Journal Polit. Econ., 70, October 1962: 9-49.

3.19 This article is concerned with activities that influence
future real income through the buildup of resources in people.
6.16 Most investments in human capital both raise observed earnings at older ages, because returns are added to earnings then, and lower them at younger ages, becuase costs are deducted from earnings then. The analysis proceeds from a discussion of specific kinds of human capital, with greatest attention being paid to on-the-job

training, because it clearly illustrates and emphasizes the common effects, to a general theory applying to any kind of training.

151C Weisbrod, Burton A., "Education and Investment in Human Capital," Journal Polit. Econ., 70, October 1962: 106-123.

6.16 The paper attempts to identify the benefits of education by recognizing the beneficiaries of the educational process. Some of the benefits of education are realized at the time the education is being received; other, after the formal education is completed. Benefits from education occur not only at various times but also in various places. There is a legitimate question concerning the justice of requiring broad, public support for education in so far as the benefits are narrow and private, except as an income redistribution device.

151D Weisbrod, Burton A., "The Valuation of Human Capital," Journal Polit. Econ., 69, October 1961: 4325-436.

6.01 The objectives of this paper are to point up the usefulness of the concept of human-capital value, and then to develop the

6.16 methods, discuss some of the difficulties and, finally, to present the results of actual calculations of capitalized values of (male) human assets for the year 1950. Estimates of human-capital values for a variety of subsets of people classified by state of health, location, education, race, etc., would be useful, and in some cases the data required for the calculations are obtainable.

151E Moore, C.A., "Recent Developments in Brazilian Agriculture," Journal Polit. Econ., 64, August 1956: 341-346.

1.032 This study was undertaken to determine the extent to which the very substantial increases in agricultural production in

4.03 Brazil, a relatively poor country, have come from the use of additional land, labor, and capital. In Brazil, only about half of the

4.11 additional output of agriculture since 1925-1929 is explained by additional inputs of the conventional types. This study does not attempt to account for the remaining output.

152A Ashford, D. E., "Rural Commune Experiment in Morocco," J. Rur. Dev. Adm., Peshawar, 5(1), 1965: 71-106.

1.131 The evolution of new forms of community is a process of creation, the pace of which is not determined by the need for such
4.17 forms but by sociological and psychological factors that have a time scale of their own. The challenge becomes one of attempting
5.08 to harmonize the two time scales. In this paper, the author expounds the efforts of an African country, which had been confined
7.21 within the limits of a traditional civilization for centuries, to harmonize these relationships and make use of the untrapped energies and unused cognitive skills at the local level in establishing responsible local government. The paper provides insights into rural administration at the village level and several references are also made to Pakistan's basic democracies.

152B Haider, S. M., "Human Relations Aspects of Administration in a District Secretariat," J. Rural Dev. Adm., Peshawar, 5(1), 1965: 33-41.

1.022 The paper is the outcome of an investigation carried out in 36 offices of a district secretariat in West Pakistan during the years
7.03 1961 and 1962. A developing society, an increasing specialization of tasks and an expanding horizon of human relationships are some of the factors which are working steadily to fashion an extensive and intricate administrative organization. The problems of intra-office communication and the way in which they affect the efficiency are highlighted.

152C Matin, A., "Inter-Provincial Parity and the Approach of the Third Five-Year Plan Towards the Problem," J. Rural Dev. Adm., Peshawar, 5(1), 1965: 51066.

1.022 The emotional integration of East and West Pakistan in view of the economic disparity between the two is condidered to be a hin-
3.07 drance to the development of the country. The demand of East Pakistan for parity in its development is examined and correctness of the assumptions and grounds on which the flow of resources from East Pakistan to West Pakistan has been calculated is questioned. A case is made in favor of East Pakistan and it is maintained that West Pakistan should repay all that it has acquired for its economic growth from the former. Two methods have been recommended to reduce the disparity. The approach of the Third Five-Year Plan towards the problem is examined. The reliability of the forecasts

used in the Plan is questioned together with the absorbing capacity of the envisaged investment of East Pakistan. While the increased capacity of investment in East Pakistan is desirable the main concern should be the effectual and equitable utilization of the national appraisal of the progress towards economic targets are recommended.

153A Shrader, W. D., "Agricultural Problems and Potentials in Iran," J. Soil and Water Conserv. India, 18(1), January-February 1962: 23-24.

1.235 This paper substantiates the observation that more than 100 times as much labor may be required to produce a unit of food in

4.09 some underdeveloped countries, as is now used in the United States. While mechanization may alleviate this problem, it would greatly

4.11 increase unemployment. A mass redistribution of the land would be futile given the size of the population.

4.16

153B Bansil, P. C., "Agricultural Development in India," J. Soil and Water Conserv. India, 8(4), October 1960: 7-27.

1.021

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154A Ayal, Eliezer B., "Value Systems and Economic Development in Japan and Thailand," J. Soc. Issues, 19(1), January 1963: 35-51.

1.025 This is a demonstration of the key role of the value system
in determining whether a society will embark on successful economic
1.027 development. Japan and Thailand were selected for comparative study
because of their similarities in factors often considered important
5.112 for economic development and their divergence in actual economic
performance, Japan having achieved self-sustaining growth, while
5.122 Thailand's economy resembles those of her ex-colonial neighbors.
A causal relationship between the value system and modes of behavior
associated with economic development is sought. The transmission
of the general orientation of the value system into action is
conceived as being materialized through the intermediary of
"propensities", which are defined and identified for the countries
under examination. The Japanese value system emerges as giving
primacy to political values and encouraging the modes of behavior
required for economic development. The special emphasis on active
fulfillment of duty added particular impetus. In the Thai value
system, the primacy of personal values, the weakness of the propensities, and the low emphasis on action were responsible for the
slow rate of growth. Changes in political and social institutions,
or investments by foreigners, will not bring about sustained
economic development unless the value system of a society is
conductive to development. Studies indicating methods by which
changes in values can be effected are of primary importance for
economic development.

154B Bradburn, Norman M., "Interpersonal Relations Within Formal Organizations in Turkey," J. Soc. Issues, 19(1), January 1963: 61-67.

1.233 A field trip to Turkey in 1958-1959 provided the opportunity
for studying the adaptation of interpersonal relations within the
5.063 formal organization of the factory (a product of Western culture),
as it is introduced into the social organization of Turkish culture.
5.13 Data were obtained from interviews, open-ended questionnaires, and
a Business Attitude (Likert-type) Scale administered to managers,
and from personal visits to businesses. A source of strain in the
executive role is the conflict between the particularistic orientation, characterizing familial relations, and the universalistic
orientation of modern business organizations. The result of this
conflict seems to be a modification of the interpersonal relations
within the industrial organization to parallel those of the family,
i.e., the firm tends to be viewed as a family, with the manager in
the role of the authoritarian father. Employees are evaluated on
their relationships with the manager, rather than on their performance relative to some objective criterion. In a very large-scale

organization, where the general manager cannot have immediate knowledge of every employee, the organization is broken into subfamilies, with each employee in an extreme dependence relationship to his immediate supervisor. The particularistic orientation of Turkish industry serves as an important function in light of the industrialization currently taking place. Villagers coming to the city in search of work have not shed their customary behavior patterns; they expect to be placed in paternalistic, submissive roles by their employers. If this role expectation is not fulfilled, workers fail to develop company loyalty, and high labor turnover results. The particularistic relationship also has a significant dysfunction. The "good manager" is conceived as one who obtains absolute obedience from subordinates. The primary focus of role evaluation is ability to control others, rather than ability to achieve the goals of the firm; as a result, the firm's goals are subordinated to interpersonal ones.

1540 Hagen, Everett E., "How Economic Growth Begins: A Theory of Social Change," J. Soc. Issues, 19(1), January 1963: 20-34.

3.01 This article presents a theory of traditional society as a system in stable equilbrium, then suggests how the stability is
3.15 disrupted and gives way to change in social structure, personality, and culture. Traditional society is authoritarian and hierarchical.
5.01 Its model personality (typifying most members of the society, probably including elites) is: high in need submission-dominance, low in need autonomy and achievenent; it sees the world as arbitrary and not orderly; feels anxiety in making decisions; prefers to submit to higher authority and to dominate persons of lower status; is uncreative and authoritarian; believes children incapable of understanding the world, pampers them during the first years of life and then directs them arbitrarily. Since parents enjoy their role, their model causes children to see authoritarian behavior as satisfying, and to later recreate and perpetuate the personality type of their parents. This, not the possession of power by top elite, causes the stability of traditional society. Innovation occurs when change in social structure causes the lower elite to feel disparaged by the upper elite, with consequent anxiety and resentment. The children of the disparaged adults then perceive the authoritarian behavior and the status and roles of the parents as unsatisfying. This change causes increasing repression of values and needs (retreatism) over several generations, and finally in occasional cases, increased creativity in personality -- high need autonomy and achievement, low need submission-dominance, and a cognition of the world as orderly and manipulatable -- and a dirve to prove one's worth to oneself, which in the modern world is apt to be channeled into economic prowess. These relationships and this historical sequence are believed present in all cases of major social innovation.

154D Kunkel, John H., "Psychological Factors in the Analysis of Economic Development," J. Soc. Issues, 19(1), January 1963: 68-87.

3.01 Recent theories of economic development have assigned an important role to the individual as being responsible for the origin of
3.15 change. This raises the problem of the nature of the relationship between the individual and the social structure as both a deter-
5.01 minant and consequence of his action. The inadequacies of an alternative approach based upon the principles of operant conditioning is proposed. The extent of entrepreneurial activity in a nation is hypothesized to be a function of: (1) the extinction rate of incompatible behavior, (2) changes in reinforcement generated by the normative structure, and (3) communication patterns, rather than being a result of personality changes occurring over generations. The fact that major behavioral changes can occur, as in Vicos, Peru, in a six-year period, suggests that behavior may have characteristics of an individual's internal state.

154E Nash, Manning, "Introduction: Approaches to the Study of Economic Growth," J. Soc. Issues, 19(1), January 1963: 1-5.

3.01 This article places in perspective the current concern with psycho-cultural variables. Three modes of attacking the problem of social change and economic development are described: (1) the index method, involving comparison between ideal types of developed and poor economies; (2) the acculturation view, based on diffusion from the West to underdeveloped countries; and (3) the process analysis of newly developing nations. The approaches are evaluated, and it is suggested that only three can generate the information and ideas for an adequate theory of economic development as a process of social and cultural change. The role of psycho-cultural variables is indicated in such an adequate theory.

154F Muhyi, Ibrahim Abdulla, "Women in the Arab Middle East," J. Soc. Issues, 15(3), 1959: 45-57.

1.01 This is a discussion of the Western influences which are modifying the role of the woman in the Middle East. In the tradi-
1.02 tional family, the female seldom has much freedom and receives little or no formal education. Four areas of Western impact are
5.06 examined: technology, education, politics, and social tradition. The reaction to Westernization among the women is derived from
6.06 female's responses to questionnaires and interviews. It is found

that: the women tend to resist the extremes of traditional society or complete Westernization; "while the girls demand college education for women, they do not insist on the same kind of education as that provided for men"; they are concerned with the problems of the nation, but their personal involvement is much less than that of the men; they believe that women can be trusted to take care of themselves; and "in spite of the stress under which young women in the Middle East are reportedly living, they are maintaining their poise about as well as are their male fellow siblings." The males generally "still adhere to some extent to the double standard." It is concluded that "there is no evidence of a militant crusade for women's rights, but ... there is a genuine desire for freedom from some of the traditional restrictions." The Middle Eastern female "admires the freedom and the individualism of the West; yet her whole tradition tells her that there is something fine about her own culture that must be preserved."

154G Sasaki, Tom T., "Situational Changes and the Fruitland Navaho," J. Soc. Issues, 14(4), 1958: 17-24.

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This is a discussion of the impact of steady wage work introduced by a natural gas extracting company upon Navaho life, investigating: (1) the antecedent socio-economic conditions in the community which predisposed the farmers to reorient some facets of their way of life from the Navaho to the Anglo way, (2) the situational changes which made this possible for these Indians, and (3) some of the social consequences of these changes. After the dislocation caused by World War II and the return of the soldiers, some sentiment existed for the adoption of new ways. Thus, with the introduction of the new company, almost all Fruitlanders became involved in the wage economy. This resulted in decreased interest in farming and a general lack of interest in working cooperatively with each other and with the government. The solidarity of the old social organization was weakened; shifts in the statuses of different types of families occurred, producing a strengthening of nuclear families. But behavior is changing, not only because of the objective change situations, but also because alternative definitions of the situation are being made available through the continued development of the resources of the region.

155A Ranganadha, Sripati, "Package Program in Andhra Pradesh," Khadi Gramodyog, 9(10), July 1963: 655-659.

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The working and progress of the "package program" in Andhra Pradesh are reviewed. This program has been launched in the country on the recommendations of a team of experts of the Ford Foundation, and is designed to step up the drive for self-sufficiency of foodgrains through integrated and intensified efforts in selected areas. In the West Godavari district in Andhra Pradesh, the scheme was started in October 1960. Soil testing, application of chemical fertilizers and pesticides, and a modified form of the Japanese method of paddy cultivation have been experimented with, demonstrated in modern farms and recommended to cultivators. The district being a deltaic region, the lack of proper drainage has been an inhibiting factor toward the progress of the program.

156A Iyer, H. R. S., "Panchayati Raj Administration; Role of Officials and Non-Officials," Kurukshetra, 13(7), April 1965: 13-14.

1.021 The problem of relationship between the elected members of
local self-government institutions and permanent officials is a
7.03 matter of increasing importance with the growth of democratic
institutions. The concept of Panchayati Raj means giving non-
7.21 officials full authority in certain matters and resources and
making them entirely responsible for the planning and implementa-
tion of development programs. The paper discusses potential prob-
lems of this relationship between officials and non-officials.

156B Kuppuswamy, B., "Social Change in a Village; My Sore Experience," Kurukshetra, 13(11), August 1965: 23-24.

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156C Mathur, P. N., "Caste System Barrier to Rural Change," Kurukshetra, 13(7), April 1965: 27-29.

1.021 Democratic functioning is the underlying principle in rural
development in which every individual has equal opportunity to
4.181 develop himself and his society. The caste system has successfully
developed negative ethnocentric tendencies promoting group loyal-
5.062 ties among the people. Thus, the principles of community develop-
ment and those of the caste system are contrary to each other.
5.111 The paper notes problems encountered as a function of the caste
system. No working formula can be evolved to counteract rural
resistance prompted by caste considerations.

156D Rao, V. S., "Agriculture and Economic Development; Need for Technical Change,: Kurukshetra, 13(6), March 1956: 3-5.

3.01 Technical change can be introduced if there is a mental pre-
paredness on the part of the community to accept the innovation.
4.01 To produce a cooperative response on the part of the population,
which has to implement technical change, there is a need to pro-
4.11 duce a feeling of tension in the community resulting from the pres-
sure of inconsistencies in the distribution of mobile wealth and

income or from a great inequality in the distribution of land or political powers. If improved techniques have to be introduced in agriculture in order to increase productivity, the human factor has to be taken into account and the mentality of the farmers oriented to the needs of a developing economy.

156E Rao, V. S., "Education in Rural India," Kurukshetra, 13(9), June 1956: 2-3.

1.021 According to modern economists, there is a distinct correlation between the state of advancement of a country's economy and the
6.04 claims which it may expect higher education to make upon its financial resources. There is a great need to decrease the cost of
6.05 education in rural areas so that literacy will increase. If this is done, the task of the extension worker becomes smoother for he
6.082 will be working in a climate of greater receptivity.

156F Vepa, R. K., "Collector's Role in Panchayati Ray," Kurukshetra, 13(7), April 1965: 15-16.

1.021 The paper discusses whether the "Collector" should be "in" or "out" of the Panchayati Raj institutions. Some fear that if the
7.21 District Collector is a member of the Standing Committees that he will convert these bodies to mere advisory councils. Some fear that deep involvement by the Collector would draw him into local political funds. The object is to give the Collector a useful role in the Panchayati Raj pattern without at the same time impairing the unity of the district administration and without depriving the pattern of its original motivation.

156G Matthers, V. S., "Panchayat Industries; Orissa Experiment," Kurukshetra, 12(5), February 1964: 17-18.

1.021 The paper attempts to describe Panchayat Prize Competition Schemes. The object is to bring out the comparative efficiency of
3.13 each of the competing institutions in fulfilling the tasks assisned to them in the sphere of administration, organization, and physical
5.08 performance in the field through a judicious application of test. They also seek to foster and promote self-reliance, cooperative
7.21 thinking, and an effort and an urge to work for economic prosperity.

156H Subramaniam, S., "Training for Block Level Progress Assistants," Kurukshetra, 12(5), February 1964: 13-14.

1.021 The quality and caliber of the personnel entrusted with the
task of implementation of the various facets of community develop-
5.08 ment are of paramount importance in insuring its success. He
proposes that the training of Progress Assistants, should, in the
7.21 future, be considered as allied to the training of Block Develop-
ment Officers rather than of the traditional type of statistical
7.232 staff. On no account can purely statistical training serve as a
substitute for close and continuing contact with the developing
attitudes of people which are "hardly amenable to measurement by
well-known norms or scales."

156I Gupta, L. C., "Evolving Pattern of Rural Leadership," Kurukshetra, 11(11), August 1963: 7-8.

1.021 The author distinguishes between the representative/symbolic
leader and the dynamic/creative leader. The former satisfies the
5.08 expectations of the group by acting on its behalf. The latter
involves an attempt to enrich and alter the existing stock of
7.21 values. The author argues that the latter is necessary for devel-
opmental change.

156J Jain, P. N., "Panchayat Authority — A Spur or a Brake?" Kurukshetra, 11(7), April 1963: 21-22.

1.021 This paper considers whether Panchayat authority was a spur or
a break to economic development. The author argues that the
3.01 Panchayats which have been most successful have kept democracy
constantly in the forefront. Panchayat authority will be success-
5.08 ful if people are actively associated with its working.

7.21

156K Sanyal, S., "Community Development in Afghanistan," Kurukshetra, 11(11), August 1963: 15-16.

1.245 The paper describes the tasks and the aims of the Community
Development program. It has effectively modified the people's
5.08 initiative and effort in the task of regeneration, as well as
improving the material conditions of the rural population.

156L Singh, H., "Increasing Agricultural Output: Role of Government and Farmers," Kurukshetra, 11(11), August 1963: 9-11.

1.021 Farm productivity is related to the structure of farm input-
mix and cost and price relationships. Increase in agricultural
4.01 productivity flows from a systematic application of modern science,
technology, and investment. The author argues that the Government
4.06 ought to "motivate" farmers to adopt new techniques by providing
them the necessary technical know-how and making available to them
4.16 requisite supplies of new input, credit and marketing facilities.

7.231

156M Ayyangar, M., "Ananthasayanam: Extension of Federal Structure to Rural India," Kurukshetra, 8, March 1960: 5-7.

1.021 The author suggests some of the means of extending the federal
structure to rural India so as to realize the Gram Raj visualized
7.19 by Gandhiji. It emphasizes decentralization keeping in view the
importance of participation of the people in running the Government
7.21 and brings out the defects of the present structure of administra-
tion. In addition to Zila Parishads, Taluka Samitis and Village
Panchayats, the author advocates the formation of two more organi-
zations such as "Local Ministers" and Functional Panchayats with
a view to making the system more effective and feasible. "Local
Ministers" are to be at the district level and should be three in
number including the Collector as a Chief Executive Officer or the
Chief Secretary. They are to be fulltime workers entitled to a
salary. Functional Panchayats at the village level are to be five
to six in mumber, i.e., (1) Local Administration Panchayat, (2)
Educatinnal and Cultural Panchayat, (3) Judicial or Nyaya Panchayat,
(4) Farmers' Panchayat, and (5) Police Panchayat. A multi-
purpose co-operative Society is also suggested for a group of
villages to act both as the financing and marketing co-operation
for agricultural and industrial activities and products respec-
tively. The idea behind this is to make the villagers feel that
the Government is run by themselves for their welfare.

156N Avinashilingam, T. S., "Rural Extension Work in India," Kurukshetra, 4(5), January 1956: 35-36.

1.021 Till the advent of independence, while every state had an agri-
cultural department, the work of the department in the villages was
6.082 negligible. But with independence, agricultural extension work got
a tremendous stimulus. The main problems to be overcome were low
food production, unemployment in the rural areas, poor village
communications, poor primary education, and poor housing. The
author notes that community development cannot take place without
the help of the women.

157A Diaz-Alejandro, Carlos F., "On the Import Intensity of Import Substitution," Kyklos, 18(3), 1965: 495-511.

3.01 This paper deals with several issues related to the impact of import substitution on a country's demand for imports. With the
3.16 help of a simple model, it points out that once a given rate of growth has been reached and is maintained through time, the fact that investment expenditures have a high import component will not give rise to balance of payments difficulties, as the direct impact of this year's investment on the demand for imports should be more than offset by last year's investment in the import substituting industry now coming to fruition. The pressures on the balance of payments will arise during the transition period when a country is attempting to set up capital formation in the import substituting sector. The paper also emphasizes the need to take into account all direct and indirect repercussions of an increase in investment on the demand for imports when estimating the foreign exchange savings to be realized from a given investment project.

The second part of the paper considers the likely effects of a change in the relative prices of imports on the manufacturing sector producing goods previously imported, but which still relies on imported raw materials and intermediate products, and on the demand for imports. Several reasons are given for a presumption against a high price elasticity in the demand for imports, based on the derived nature of a large component of such demand. Given these structural conditions the alternatives open to a policy maker in a semi-industrialized country facing the need to cut back imports are likely to be quite grim.

157B Kapp, K. William, "Economic Development in a New Perspective: Existential Minima and Substantive Rationality," Kyklos, 18(1), 1965: 49-79.

3.01 The article questions the relevance and trustworthiness of macro-economic growth models, the inherited theory of rational action and particularly the dichotomy of given means and given ends, for the interpretation and planning of the development process in traditional societies marked by cumulative stagnation. The continued use of these theoretical structures may, in fact, be one of the reasons for the recurrence of serious gaps between plan and performance and the current disenchantment with the slow rate of growth in many underdeveloped countries.

As a positive contribution to the problems under discussion the author suggests that economists may find it useful to develop pragmatic indicators of incremental improvements which could be derived from an objectivication of the content of "welfare" in terms of so-called existential minima representing minimum adequate levels of satisfaction of essential human needs. Combined with the use of such indicators would have to be the search for alternative goals and possibilities by means of technical, institutional and economic feasibility studies which must be considered the crux of the planful act particularly in underdeveloped countries endeavoring to in introduce technologies based upon modern science. The use of such indicators reflecting existential minima would have the effect of making economic theorizing more responsive to human needs and provide the discipline with new criteria for the evaluation of the substantive rationality of decision making and of different forms of economic organization.

157C Van Meerhaeghe, M., "Observations of the Opinions of New Nations Regarding Their Growing Economy," Kyklos, 18(3), 1965: 479-494.

3.01 The present article deals with some of the most important claims of underdeveloped countries. Especially considered are
3.15 stabilization and promotion of exports, stimulation of industrialization, the problems of financial aid. Additional measures to be
3.16 taken by an underdeveloped country itself (improvement of education and interregional co-operation) are also taken into account.

Many of these claims, as it became evident at the Geneva conference on trade and development (March/June 1964), are proposed under wrong assumptions and expectations or are just unrealistic; for instance immediate removal of European and American protectionism in agrarian questions and concession of far-reaching export-guarantees for underdeveloped countries cannot be expected to be carried through at once. In connection with the problems of financial aid it is also often overlooked that economic development cannot be realized by capital only.

In spite of the often unrealistic claims, the result of the Geneva conference was nevertheless rather disappointing. The only resolution of some importance, the foundation of a new international organization, cannot be expected to be useful as long as the co-operation of existing institutions does not work.

157D Vosgerau, Hans-Jurgen, "The Cost and Return of Educational Investment," Kyklos, 18(3), 1965: 534-450.

3.19 Recently there has been an increasing interest in the economic aspects of education. It is due to the insight -- which itself
6.13 gained ground because of the growing quantitative importance of education -- that education involves costs, or demands resources
6.14 which are essentially scarce. The optimal allocation of resources to the sector of education is therefore an important problem. It is not automatically solved by the market mechanism, because social

costs and returns of an education are not recorded in the market. A rational solution of the problem, therefore, depends largely on non-market decisions, which in turn presuppose an indirect evaluation of costs and returns of an investment in education.

The present article reviews critically the methods applied and the problems encountered by American economists and calculating the costs and returns of an investment in education, taking as an example the typical four-year college education. It is shown that, under certain assumptions, costs and returns of investments in education can be calculated, compared with corresponding data for other investments and thus be used as a basis for a decision as to whether expenditures on education should be increased or decreased. The main shortcoming of this approach, judging from the hitherto published contributions, seems to be a neglect of the dynamic implications which in turn are closely connected with the external effects of education. It is to be hoped that further research will better take into account these effects which are likely to be of considerable importance.

157E Riese, Hajo, "Medium-Term Economic Growth and the Neo-Classical Theory," Kyklos, 18(1), 1965: 80-106.

3.01 All over the world governments and business firms demand ready tools for a rational economic policy. The target is more and more
3.02 shifting from full employment to increasing wealth. The theory of economic growth is, therefore, of growing importance. It is an interesting question to ask whether the modern, especially the neo-classical theory of economic growth is capable of fulfilling the political requirements. The answer must be negative. The neoclassical theory of economic growth is developed essentially as a theory of long-run growth. Problems of medium-term growth which matter for economic policy, however, cannot be solved with its tools. First of all, it is based on the substitutability between labor and capital; it it therefore impossible to state a surplus or a deficit in the factor supply. Secondly, it is not satisfactory that economic growth is explained by the development of factor supply. In order to obtain a realistic theory of economic growth, one should start with production functions allowing limited substitutability; furthermore, a theory of the factor demand should be developed, where the factor supply only has the effect of limiting the growth of output. This article is a contribution to a theory explaining the process of economic growth simultaneously by factor supply and factor demand.

157F Balassa, Bela, "The Capital Needs of Developing Countries," Kyklos, 17(2), 1964: 197-206.

3.01 The author compares the "trade-gap" and the "capital requirements" approaches, each designed to indicate the future capital
3.03 needs of developing countries. He emphasizes that, under proper definitions, the two methods should give identical results. Subsequently,
3.16 this proposition is used to evaluate existing estimates derived by the way of these approaches.

It is pointed out that the reliability of the GATT trade-gap estimates is reduced by reason of their partial equilibrium character as well as the high degree of aggregation in the process of estimation. At the same time, questions are raised about the conceptual framework of Rosenstein-Rodan's study on the capital requirements of developing countries and the error-possibilities of these calculations are indicated.

The conclusion is reached that, chiefly by reason of the weakness of their theoretical underpinnings, available estimates on the future capital needs of less developed countries are of little usefulness for policy-making purposes. Correspondingly, improvements in forecasting methodology are necessary to place estimation on a firmer basis and to provide assistance for policy-making.

157G Bhatt, V. V., "Theories of Balanced and Unbalanced Growth: A Critical Appraisal," Kyklos, 17(4), 1964: 612-626.

3.01 The nature of the controversy between the protagonists of balanced growth and those of unbalanced growth seems to suggest that
3.02 the two are mutually exclusive alternative strategies of growth for the underdeveloped countries. However, it is the contention of this paper that the two strategies are complementary to each other and the idea of balance is as much significant for an unbalanced growth strategy as that of unbalance is to the balanced growth strategy.

The basic difference between them, as it generally happens with such alternative formulations, is with regard to their respective assumptions. Balanced growth theories implicitly assume lack of a motivational problem and perfect knowledge with regard to the constraints operating on the growth process. Unbalanced growth protagonists question these assumptions; they argue that because of imperfect knowledge with regard to the constraints as well as the possibility of modifying them through the growth process, it is not possible to formulate a priori any unique maximum development path; it is only by adequately motivating the growth process that the maximum attainable growth can be known as well as realized. A certain unbalance, they argue, is necessary for motivating the process. What they fail to realize is that even to attain this unbalance, a certain balance or consistency among various variables is necessary. Further, since the rationale of creating an unbalance lies in generating forces which can correct this unbalance, it is also necessary to have some idea about the nature of the balance that is sought to be attained by a process of unbalanced growth. Thus, there does not seem to be any basic conflict between these two formulations of the growth strategy; the two can be integrated in operational terms as is shown in this paper.

157H Gerfin, Harald, "Growth and Development of the Economy," Kyklos, 17(4), 1964: 565-593.

3.01 One of the main economic problems for future decades seems to
be a rapid expansion of capacities in infra-structure in a very
3.02 broad sense in order to guarantee the optimal development of all
productive factors. Efficient infra-structure policies depend on
3.19 the existence of adequate long-term economic and demographic projections with regional breakdown. Such analyses have to be based on growth theory and location theory. Neither of them, however, is prepared at present for realizing and explaining all relationships relevant in this connection. In the paper at hand the attempt was made to unfold a disaggregated growth model appropriate for the reception of locational influences. In this way we get an outline for an operational theory of the distribution of growth in space.

157I Hansen, Niles M., "Weber and Veblen on Economic Development," Kyklos, 17(3), 1964: 447-468.

3.01 Many of the central problems surrounding economic development require a broader analytic context than that provided by traditional Western economic theory. The value of the institutionalist tradition has been referred to with increasing frequency in this regard. The contributions and shortcomings of this tradition are well illustrated in Veblen's thought. The shortcomings include: (1) an inadequate treatment of economic motivation; (2) a tendency to view the study of economic institutions as a substitute for, rather than a complement to, price theory (including the related disciplines of mathematical economics and econometrics); and (3) an inadequate exploration of the nature and significance of alternative institutions with reference to economic development. In each of these respects the concepts and comparative analyses of Weber provide valuable additions to both methodology and theory. Weber's legacy deserves the attention of all those who believe that economics should should be a survey of possibilities, not a quarrel among irritable professors.

157J LaTourette, John E., "Technological Change and Equilibrium Growth in the Harrod-Domar Model," Kyklos, 17(2), 1964: 207-226.

3.01 This paper advances a Schumpeterian interpretation, emphasizing technological factors, of the Harrod-Domar model as an alterna-
3.02 tive to the so-called neoclassical models of economic growth. The author demonstrates that this interpretation, as well as the neoclas-
3.11 sical one, may be derived from Harrod's assumptions in respect to technological change. Statistical evidence on the importance of technological change which tends to substantiate this alternative interpretation is cited.

A diagrammatical analysis illustrates the differences between the author's interpretation of the Harrod-Domar model and the neoclassical growth models. This analysis is also employed to indicate the nature of the aggregate production function assumed in the Harrod-Domar model and to illustrate the cases of neutral, capital-saving, and capital-using technological change.

The implications of non-neutral (i.e., capital-saving or capital-using) technological change for the Harrod-Domar equilibrium rate of growth are examined within this diagrammatical framework. The conclusion is that non-neutral technological change may be a fundamental cause of dynamic disequilibrium. The variability of the capital-output ratio, as shown by recent studies, indicates that the concern with non-neutral technological change should be more than of a purely theoretical interest to economists.

157K Massell, Benton F., "Exports, Capital Imports, and Economic Growth," Kyklos, 17(4), 1964: 627-635.

3.01 In a recent paper, R. J. Ball presented a theoretical examination of the effect of exports and of capital imports on an economy's
3.02 rate of economic growth. Ball found that capital imports enable an economy to increase its rate of growth without incurring any debt
3.03 burden. He found also that an increase in exports may reduce the rate of growth.
3.16 The present study examines the model and the assumptions underlying Ball's conclusions. Both of Ball's conclusions are seen to follow from quite unacceptable assumptions; a more realistic set of assumptions yields entirely different results.

157L Riese, Hajo, "The Balance of Growth in Neo-Classical Theory of Equilibrium," Kyklos, 17(1), 1964: 40-64.

3.01 3.02 3.03 According to the neoclassical theory of economic growth, the rate of growth of output tends towards a value which is independent of the proportion of the national income saved. If the proportion of saving changes, the rate of economic growth reaches -- after an adjustment process -- its original level, which (with a constant labor force) is alone determined by technical progress and the elasticity of the output in respects to changes in the use of the factor capital. Amongst the infinity of possible proportions of investment there must be one, which leads to a maximization of consumption. It can be shown, that consumption is maximized if the proportion of investment equals the elasticity of the output to the factor capital.

The theorem that the rate of economic growth is independent of the proportion of investment is only valid if technical progress is autonomous. The equilibrium system postulated in this theorem is indeterminate to the extent that technical change is induced by the process of capital formation. Under these conditions saving and investment decisions again become the determining parameters of the growth rate. Technical progress may be partly independent of capital formation. It is a function of the level of technical knowledge and expenditure on education, even if these factors do not enter the analysis explicitly as factors of production. The neoclassical theory of equilibrium, however, is based on the assumption that technical progress is simply a function of time; thus this theory of equilibrium is based upon the choice of an inappropriate underlying production function.

Moreover, only the rate of economic growth is dependent upon investment activity but not the level of output. With an increasing proportion of investment the level of output increases, tending to a new equilibrium path.

There exists a determinable proportion of investment which leads to a maximization of consumption. Pearce has shown recently that this is valid only under the condition that several economies which are on the equilibrium path of growth are compared. If the optimum path is left temporarily (through an increase in the proportion of investment), a (temporary) increase of consumption, which exceeds the consumption foregone, is obtained. Beyond it, it can be shown that the optimal proportion of investment must be higher, the more technical progress is induced. If technical progress is not autonomous, the system is again open: in the long run the greater the accumulation of capital the greater the possible consumption level. It is the subsistence minimum which determines the proportion of investment.

157M Apel, Hans, "Political Ideology and the Process of Change," Kyklos, 16(3), 1963: 458-480.

7.11 Democracy has been denounced by those who oppose it on grounds of principle. But it has also become increasingly subject to criti-
7.16 cism by its own adherents for diverse procedural shortcomings. The argument of this article goes one step further, and questions prevailing views about the role which political ideology assumedly has to play in a well-functioning democracy.

In this prevailing view political ideology is not only the actual historical basis for a pluralistic party system, but also a necessity for its continuation. The present argument, however, holds that the rapidly increasing pace of material change, as it can approximately be inferred from the roughly measurable conditions of economic growth, is now playing havoc with the ability of tradition-bound ideology to serve as a proper guide for reasonable political action; the observable tendency for deep ideological issues to disappear from the scene of party contest is observed, and it is suggested that party democracy may substitute in the future pragmatically chosen positions on specific issues for ideologically grounded goals.

Second, an analysis of the equilibrating tendencies inherent in the process of change leads up to the proposition that political ideology cannot, as a rule, initiate and direct a desired course of action through its influence on political action in a democracy, but only in a society subject to authoritarian rule; rather it can merely control processes of adjustment to change which originates in the autonomous actions of free men in their general pursuit of life.

Third, it is shown that political ideologies are basically related to the prospect of change which they either wish to undo, or to mimimize, or to mitigate, or to accelerate in the manner attempted by so-called "reactionary", "conservative", "progressive", or "evolutionary" attitudes; therefore, it is argued, a tendency toward a universally accepted outlook on change, as it shows itself now in the general craving for material progress, renders a "progressive" ideology as much the only reasonable attitude as conservatism was under medieval conditions of slow and retarded change.

157N Collins, N. R., and R. H. Holten, "Programming Changes in Marketing in Planned Economic Development," Kyklos, 16(1), 1963: 123-127.

3.01 It is well recognized in the literature that economic growth must proceed with a proper coordination of the various economic
3.08 sectors. It is not sufficient, however, only to take into account the interdependence of the industrial and agricultural segments.
3.09 These sectors in turn are dependent on an appropriate distributive

system to bridge the gap between producer and ultimate consumer. The implications for economic development are important. If the development program has made possible new production opportunities, the existing marketing system likely will not be best adapted to complement the altered production situation. No doubt the rationalization of the distributive apparatus could, under many circumstances, be accelerated just by clearing away the imperfections in the market and by providing an environment of better employment conditions. But under some rather common conditions, these changes will not be sufficient. Economic development plans, therefore, under these circumstances should appropriately include directed measures to generate the requisite type of distributive sector.

The popular image of economic development is primarily one of physical change rather than organizational change, insufficient emphasis being given to the point that is expansion of primary and secondary industries is to be encouraged, correlative changes in the distributive system must be effected. This point has an important corollary. The distributive system under some circumstances can be a leading sector in economic development, in the sense that alterations in this sector can change demand and cost functions in agriculture and manufacturing so as to encourage their expansion.

1570 Sengupta, J. K., and Gerhard Tintner, "On Some Aspects of Trend in the Aggregative Models of Economic Growth," Kyklos, 16(1), 1963: 47-61.

3.01 3.02 In the framework of an aggregitive Domar-type growth model, an attempt has been made here at empirical specification of trends more general than the exponential. The income trend is analyzed in its two aspects, e.g., in terms of overall real income and its components in the form of output-mix measured by the ratio of investment to consumption. On the basis of long-run data on income and its components for the United States and the United Kingdom, the preliminary statistical results show that the hypothesis of a mixed-logistic trend is not refuted by the available data. Since the second-order autoregressive equations did not fare better than the first-order ones in terms of goodness of fit, the latter results alone are reported.

A theoretical analysis has also been made of the conditions under which a mixed-logistic trend can be derived from the aggregative growth models. These conditions are specified as a set of constraints on the production function and the investment demand function underlying the growth model. This has the implication that the overall growth process can be conceived as a succession of stages of development or a change of regimes. The role of stochastic processes in the analysis of long-run economic development needs however a more detailed investigation, before any definite conclusions can be derived about a specific type of trend.

157P Becker, James F., "Social Imbalance and the Marxian System," Kyklos, 15(3), 1962: 635-654.

3.01 Within the framework of Marxian concepts, one can construct a
theory of "social imbalance", defined here as a secular and pro-
3.03 gressive tendency toward a misallocation of social resources. Marx
distinguishes a number of departments of production, ranging in
3.19 differential productivity from that which contributes wholly to the
continuing accumulation of social capital to the category of social
waste, centering primarily in certain financial and commercial
activities uniquely associated with capitalism and contributing
nothing to accumulation. Within these departments, the relative
intensity of sectorall development varies in a historical progression. The accumulatiom of social capital begins in the industrial sector. However, as accumulation proceeds, resources are allocated in relatively growing proportions into less and less productive realms. Once production achieves a certain scale in the productive sector, relative cost disadvantages attend further increases in scale and lead to a spilling over of accumulating capitals into less productive lines. The law of the falling general rate of profit assumes alterations in sectoral cost relationships which contribute to the allocational progression. As a result of cost pressures, finance capitalism succeeds industrial capitalism, but regressive developments continue far beyond this phase. They terminate ultimately in a widespread commercialization of values, in the degenerate state that figures in the collapse of the system. The Marxian hypothesis rests upon a theory of sectoral costs of production which postulates intrasectoral, intersectoral, and intertemporal cost variations. These variations are, in principle, subject to confrontation both by empirical evidence and by productions from the premises of the "orthodox" theory of costs of production. Supposing that there is a tendency toward social imbalance, as some observers have noted, economists should perhaps consider the scientific and political implications which would follow upon a prediction, from orthodox premises, of the kinds of cost variations which the Marxian theory assumes.

157Q Correa, H., and Jan Tinbergen, "Quantitative Adaptation of Education to Accelerated Growth," Kyklos, 15(4), 1962: 776-786.

3.01 Education in the widest sense constitutes one of the processes
needed for the development of an economy. Because of the long lags
3.02 involved decisions on the expansion of education must precede those
of most other decisions in a process of increased production. In
3.173 this article the quantitative side of these decisions is discussed
with the aid of a very simple input-output model for secondary and
6.01 third-level education. The problems considered are:

I. What structure of the educational system is needed in order to let the economy grow at a given rate and how does it change with that growth rate?

II. What foreign assistance is needed if the growth of the economy has to be accelerated without changing the technical coefficients of either the economy or the education system?

III. What adaptations are needed if the same acceleration is to be obtained without foreign assistance?

Tables I and II summarize the results found in two numerical examples believed to be realistic.

The authors are confident that the method discussed can be used for the solution of a number of problems of long-term planning for education in developed as well as developing countries.

157R Hoffmann, Walther G., "Wachstumsnotwendige Wandlungen in Der Sozialstruktur Der Entwicklungslaender (Needed Changes for Growth in the Social Structure of Developing Countries)," Kyklos, 15(1), 1962: 80-94.

3.01
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This presents a sketch of the overlapping economic and social conditions among underdeveloped countries, where development and industrialization are conceived as being one and the same thing. The areas discussed are (1) the development and increase in productivity as it is related to social changes, (2) the social prerequisites and effects of an increase in savings, (3) the social consequences in the changes of the structure production, and (4) the social implications of increase in consumption.

157S Ritschi, Hans, "Wirtschaftsund Technischer Fortschritt (Economic Systems and Technical Progress)," Kyklos, 15(1), 1962: 295-316.

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The interrelation between economic systems and technical science is seen in three ways: (1) the economic system challenges technology; (2) technical science is understood as a self-acting sphere within social life and (3) the corresponding systems of economy and technical science are changing in reciprocal dependence. The competition between free enterprises in market economy sets the task for progress in technical science. Private economy, requiring profitable application, sets a strong limit to the reception of new results in technical science. The state-planned economy, on the other hand, represents a unique system of common economy. Here the state decides the tasks of technical science and the pace of progress. Though planned economy itself shows a tendency to deny new technical methods, Marxist ideology believes progress in technical science to be the promoting and shaping force in the history of mankind.

157T Slesinger, Reuben E., "Fiscal Policy Considerations for Underdeveloped Economies," Kyklos, 15(3), 1962: 624-633.

3.04 It must be emphasized that fiscal policy for an underdeveloped country is different than for a more mature nation. Furthermore, fiscal policy is but one tool -- it must work for the attainment of the developmental goals and not become the dictator of goals itself. Fiscal policy must pay close attention to the decisions on strategies, i.e., how much private enterprise; what of the distribution of resources; what of forced savings; what should be the role of tha banking system? Government expenditures may be: (1) investment, (2) consumption. If they are (1), the government expends funds for a reproductive investment, such as an irrigation project; the long-run effect should be to reduce the price of the product as it is made more plentiful. Meanwhile, employment and production are increased as a result of the expenditure. Thus, the influence tends to be toward decreasing prices. An outlay for consumption, or geared to have a direct effect on consumption, however, will tend to have the opposite effect and produce a price-increasing force. This is so because the recipients of the funds -- such as from a public pension or other type of assistance -- have added purchasing power to place on the market, and do not receive this added amount as the result of any direct production of goods. Hence, this type of outlay tends to be more inflationary, and should be watched carefully if there is any latent danger of inflation -- such as there is in most underdeveloped areas. Fiscal policy as a tool for economic development is premised on the assumption that economic development requires a deliberate and positive policy on the part of the government concerned.

157U Baran, Paul A., and Eric J. Hobsbawm, "The Stages of Economic Growth," Kyklos, 14(2), 1961: 234-242.

3.01 This article is a critique of W. W. Rostow's The Stages of Economic Growth: A Non-Communist Manifesto. Rostow suggests three
3.02 propositions with regard to economic growth: (1) it is a historical process; (2) it is a dialectical process; and (3) it has an aspect of discontinuity, i.e., it proceeds by leaps of the nation's "leading sectors". It is felt that Rostow reduces economic growth to a single pattern, and that he fails to specify the linking mechanisms of these different processes. Curiously, he fails to admit the profit motive as an explanation, and accounts for economic growth on the basis of nationalism, a somewhat circular argument. Nor does he explain the problem of economic development in underdeveloped countries, and ignores Marx's questions and reasoning. This elimination of Marx is further examined in relationship to two problems: (a) The nature of the propelling force of social-

political and economic evolution, to which historical materialism is thought to supply an answer. Marx's approach denotes the development of the forces of production as the main catalyst of the historical process; Rostow ignores the value of a thorough historical-meterialist analysis. (b) The links between economic and non-economic behavior, which Rostow feels Marx has not perceived. It is posited that Marx, far from advocating a rigid doctrine, took into account "the evolution of the consciousness, emotions, and ideologies of men." Especially cited are Marx's concept of alienatiom and his political theory. It is concluded that while various explanations or human behavior have been offered (free will, the human psyche, biotic, and social processes), Rostow finds none; behavior, for him, is haphazard.

157V Francis, E. K., "Prolegomena to a Theory of Social Change," Kyklos, 14(2) 1961: 213-230.

5.01 The criteria for the transitiom from one social system to another must be sought in the change of social structure. Since the notion of dynamic equilibrium always implies processes changing the relative position of units within the structure, "social change" must be viewed as the changing of changing structures with reference to the essential properties of particular structures. The change of power structure in the form of the substitution of one social stratum through another one as the ruling element has inescapable consequences for the structural arrangement of the total system. To a certain extent, Marxian sociology offers univocal criteria which permit identification of social change, but the alternation of ruling classes is not the only significant change of social structure. Social change should, above all, be viewed independently of culture change. Both concepts refer to the same total reality, but at different levels of abstraction. The problem of determining the boundaries of cultural units is not solved by identifying any particular culture with the behavior patterns and/or norm systems of given social groups. The concept of an "integrated culture" is as much a theoretical model as a social system in equilibrium. The essential property of cultural unity consists in a definite, existentially colored hierarchy of values, the Weltanschauung, whose change is the criterion of cultural change. One possibility of correlating socio-cultural change arises from the consideration of the underlying world view as one among many essential properties of social systems.

157W Shearer, Ronald A., "The Concept of Economic Growth," Kyklos, 14(4), 1961: 497-530.

3.01 It is possible to formulate a concept of economic growth which is free from the methodological pitfalls of definitions based on
3.02 organic or utilitarian welfare propositions. It is necessary to define and identify some entity -- an economy -- which can be said to grow in the sense of experiencing an expansion in its potentially measurable dimensions. Under these conditions, the observation and measurement of economic growth becomes analytically quite distinct from the subjective evaluation of the results of the growth process. Resolution of the basic methodological dilemmas, however, does not solve the basic empirical problem. Given the multidimensional nature of the "boundaries" of an economy, economic growth does not lend itself to simple, unambiguous qualification. The difficulties arise not from conflicting value judgments, but from the statistical problems inherent in the representation of so complex a phenomenon.

157X Singer, Morris, "Cumulative Causation and Growth Economics," Kyklos, 14(4), 1961: 533-545.

3.01 A theory of relatively sustained economic growth requires a system emphasizing mutual interactions among changing, interdepen-
3.02 dent variables, i.e., the formal equivalent of what G. Myrdal has called the principle of circular or cumulative causation. This in turn suggests the employment of disequilibrium to yield continuous economic growth. R. Matthews has suggested such a model in the form of a first order differential equation, whereby income in any given period is directly related to both the increase in income over the preceding period and the accelerator, and it is inversely related to the propensity to save. The incorporation of (1) the propensity to save, s, now directly related to growth; (2) p, the percentage of saving utilized for productive investment; and (3) b, the output-capital ratio, is suggested. Letting I represent investment and O output, the resulting equation reads: $I_t = P_t \cdot S_t \cdot (bl_t + O_t-1)$. It is derived from a combination of $I_t/O_t = P \cdot S_t/O_t$ and $O_t - O_{t-1} = bI_{t-1}$ where O_t can exceed O_{t-1} because I_{t-1} has added to aggregate supply and, because of Says Law, has stimulated aggregate demand. As long as p, s, and b remain constant, the equation yields sustained upward movements in I and O, because investment in one period contributes to additional investment in the succeeding period. This can continue as long as an economy remains so poor that saving can act as a critical bottleneck and investment does not help create a redundant capital stock.

157Y Friedmann, John, "Intellectuals in Developing Societies," Kyklos, 13(4), 1960: 513-541.

5.064 This is a sociological study treating economic defelopment as
a process of social transformation and asking what is the role of
6.01 intellectuals, and hence one part of education in this process.

6.06

157Z Kapp, William K., "Economic Development; National Planning and Public Administration," Kyklos, 13(2), 1960: 172-204.

3.02 Accelerated economic growth and development depend on an ade-
quate public administration system. Even under conditions of rela-
3.07 tive laissez-faire, the role of public administration and government
has expanded. Inadequate public administration may militate against
7.03 economic development. Coordination and implementation of the devel-
opment plan, mobilizattion and allocation of real savings, and the
7.231 formulation of development targets all call for additional public
administration facilities. In underdeveloped countries fraught with
race, class, and political segregation, defective public administra-
tion may act as an aggravating agent in promoting distrust and
apathy. "The strategic role of public administration points once
more to the fact that economic development presupposes far-reaching
institutional and social changes." Most models of economic growth
make no reference to social structure and the interaction between
government, administration, and the power structure.

157AA Ranis, Gustav, "Some Case Studies of Economic Development and Hoselitz's General Theoretical Schema," Kyklos, 13(2), 1960: 275-281.

3.01 This is a review of H. G. Atken's (ed.), The State and Eco-
nomic Growth (New York, 1959) which focuses on B. F. Hoselitz's
3.02 theoretical schema of development, i.e., developed economies can be
classified in three dimensional space (1) expansion vs. intrinsic --
the degree of ability to draw on unexploited resources; (2) non-
dominant vs. dominant -- the degree of dependence on external mar-
kets and supplies; and (3) induced vs. autonomous -- the degree in
which economic-political decision-making agencies are identical or
separate. Attempts to apply or discredit the model are haphazard,
though the various "country" chapters do indirectly contribute to
the demonstration of certain inherent weaknesses of the schema.
(1) and (2), to become analytically useful, would necessitate
considerable refinement and redefinition. The foci on the observed
"mix of public and private initiative in the development process,"

are uneven in quality and fairly uniform in their concentration on the dominant-dependent dimension. Hoselitz's schema is itself criticized on the grounds that it does not explain conflict between private entrepreneurship and integrative and goal attainment needs on one hand, and mutual reinforcement on the other. It has limited significance for empirical testing, policy, and prediction.

157BB Walker, David, "Panning for Economic Development: The Case of the Colonies," Kyklos, 12(2), 1959: 204-208.

3.01 This is a comment on B. Niculescu's Colonial Planning: A
Comparative Study (London: 1958). Though his ideas on obstacles
3.02 to economic planning are interesting, it would have been desirable
to consider the extent to which obstacles to economic growth can
3.11 be removed by government action. Development in Uganda is confined
to government agencies. The importance of the influence of the
7.231 governor in a colony without effective representative government is
stressed through the example of Uganda's six-year development plan
(1944), approved by Sir Charles Dundas, and accepted by Uganda's
Legislative Council. In Uganda, planning has been difficult, due
to the upsurge in expenditures and injudicious financial planning.
This suggests initiation of a moving planning period rather than a
fixed one. Niculescu's conception of development planning is overly
mechanical and a-political, and takes inadequate cognizance of the
economic factors which the plans are designed to eliminate.

157CC Nurkse, Ragnar, John H. Adler, P. T. Bauer, F. W. Paish, Maurice Bye, Sydney Caine, J. Goudriaan, R. F. Harrod, Alexandre Kafka, Klaus Knorr, and R. S. Porter, "The Quest for a Stabilization Policy in Primary Producing Countries -- A Symposium," Kyklos, 11(2), 1958: 141-265.

3.01 Ragnar Nurkse in "Trade Fluctuations and Buffer Policies of
Low-Income Countries" discusses the causes and effects of
3.02 instability of export earnings. It is noted that "through the
cyclical instability of foreign trade it may be that dynamic growth
3.03 in the advanced countries has tended in this way to impede the
progress of the poorer countries. There are two fundamental
3.04 remedies, one on the side of the industrial, the other on the side
of primary producing countries. The first to control the business
3.12 cycle....The other...is for the underdeveloped countries to...(fill)
the vacuum in their domestic economies through a diversified growth
3.16 of mutually supporting activities catering largely for the home
market. It means, in a word, industrialization." The latter, however, is a long-range process. Some immediate palliatives -- buffer

stocks, buffer funds, and the taxing of exports to finance development — are examined. John H. Adler comments that, given the fact that majority cyclical changes in final demand are unlikely to occur, there remain two kinds of changes on the demand side which have an important bearing on the prices of primary products." There are: change caused by technological advances and "changes in the inventory policies of the processors of crude foodstuffs and raw material." Regarding the supply side, the following are considered: "price changes caused by shifts of the aggregate supply curves of individual commodities, the effects of such price changes on the export income of primary producing countries, and measures which will mitigate these effects, or eliminate them altogether." Bauer and Pais comment that Nurkse, in his discussion, "does not seem to make a sufficiently clear distinction between two normally but not inevitable related problems, of reducing the magnitude of fluctuations, on the one hand in incomes of producers of export crops, and on the other in the aggregate money income of the country as a whole." It is pointed out too that "many underdeveloped countries have developed rapidly in recent decades even though their economies have been exposed to considerable fluctuations." The comment of Bye offers observations suggested by Nurkse's paper under the following rubrics: instability of export receipts, stabilization reserves, organization of trade, and stabilization and development. It is contended that the stabilization procedures must find their place "as items in the chart of general development prospects and of regional and worldwide adjustment." Responsibility for them should be taken chiefly by the countries concerned "but with the backing of countries in the same area of the world." A comment of Caine takes note of the following points regarding Nurkse's paper: that there is "an over-simplification in the division of countries into "predominantly industrial" and "underdeveloped"; "the general assumption that price fluctuations act as a deterrent to investment...has never been demonstrated by factual evidence"; that Nurkse "underestimates the amount of spontaneous private action of a stabilizing character"; and that "he does not pay enough attention to...the probability that traders, if they know that...(buffer) stocks are in existence and are likely to be released in more or less pre-determined market conditions, will adjust their own stock-holding accordingly." It is suggested that "a closer adherence to the old-fashioned rules of good financial management, budgetary as well as monetary and public as well as private" would go a long way toward remedying the evils of price fluctuation. Goudriaan in his comment expresses disagreement with Nurkse's opinion that "industrialization of the low-income countries will contribute in any way to their economic stability." Nor does the author "see that there is much point in the separate investigation of stabilization problems for low income countries.....The problem of price stabilization is a universal problem that affects the economy of the whole world." A comment by Harrod investigates the problem of "fluctuations in developed countries as causes of fluctuation in underdeveloped countries," and examines the advisability of buffer funds and buffer stocks. Kafka in his comment presents a critique of "the method proposed by Nurkse for dealing with fluctuations in export receipts and the total income of primary producing

countries caused by demand fluctuations abroad." Knorr's comment offers some observations on policy regarding international buffer stocks and national buffer funds. A comment by Porter examines "the effects of the instability of cotton prices on the economies of Egypt and the Sudan" and attempts to ascertain "to what extent the measures suggested by Nurkse would be a satisfactory method of dealing with this problem." An epilogue by Nurkse offers a rejoinder to the various comments.

157DD Bruton, Henry J., "The Short-Run Problem of Growth in Underdeveloped Countries," Kyklos, 10(3), 1957: 280-301.

**3.01 This article presents a discussion of the hinderances to effective
development in underdeveloped countries. Due to the absence of cer-
3.02 tain "initial conditions" a "major, large-scale crash program," is
not feasible. Available evidence supports the proposition that, when
3.03 countries now classified as advanced were going through their stage
of most rapid growth, they had already firmly established an environ-
7.03 ment that was conducive to accumulation of capital and technological
change. The central government was well organized and administrative
7.231 agencies were reasonably well-staffed, the banking and monetary sys-
tem was operating satisfactorily, the large middle class which had
come into being was providing an effective, cheap, and mobile supply
of labor, a goodly idea of economic progress -- as an ideal and as a
process at work in society, had already spread from the minds of few
to the minds of many." In the underdeveloped countries, these
factors are just beginning to emerge, and "until they become an
intrinsic part of the economic system, it will not be possible for
such a system...to absorb large amounts of capital and/or numerous
technological changes."**

157EE Carpet, Marcel, "Le Facteur Humain Et Les Activities Modernes Des Pays Sous-Developpes: L'Example De L'Afrique Occidentale Francaise (The Human Factor and the Modern Activities of Under-Developed Countries. The Example of French West Africa)," Kyklos, 10(4), 1957: 432-447.

**3.03 An examination of socio-economic factors retarding progress in
underdeveloped countries is given. Labor is scarce and unadaptable,
3.10 and Negro labor is characterized by low output, lack of initiative, a
tendency to set store by immediate prestige rather than by material
3.19 results, unevenness of effort, and limited sense of responsibility
which can be attributed to environmental factors rather than to the
nature of the men as such. There are language difficulties, rural/
urban transition, and other social barriers. White labor cannot be
transplanted without losing some productivity because of climate.
There is a shortage of capital, since the big enterprises limit it to
certain fields and outside firms do not come in unless there are raw
materials and markets in line with their original activities. The
Negroes know the country but lack financial resources.**

158A Lindholm, R.W., "Land Taxation and Economic Development," Land. Economics (Madison, Wis.), 41(2), 1965: 121-30.

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Land taxation based on capital value is used very little by the governments of developing nations. This is an undesirable situation as this tax can be a good government revenue raiser and, while performing this fiscal function, it stimulates sound private-enterprise-generated economic development. A land value tax is paid out of economic land rent unless the tax makes possible further decreases of production costs or increases in product sales prices. The immediate active efforts of land-owners to shift the tax backward or forward has been used by anti-land tax elements as proof that the long-run economic effect of the tax will be to reduce incomes of farm workers that are typically already at the subsistence level and raise food prices and rents of city workers. Instead of having these economic effects, the tax sets in motion economic pressures which will increase the productivity of agricultural land and reduce the cost of urban housing. Both of these expectations provide the economic base for higher real wages of urban and rural workers. Secondary favorable features of the tax are: (1) it provides through accepted government actions a method of reducing the political need for land ownership fragmentation, and (2) the revenues provided by the tax reduce the fiscal pressures for high taxes on exports or domestic profits. Both effects can lead to more rapid economic development.

158B Johnson, V.W., and B.H. Kristjanson, "Programming for land Reform in the Developing Agricultural Countries of Latin America," Land Economics (Madison, Wis.), 40(4), 1964: 353-360.

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In this attempt to isolate what apperrs to be the strategic element in the development of Latin America, a minimum definition of the terminology used in this study, viz., (1) land distribution, (2) land reform, and (3) agrarian reform, is given. First, (1) is limited in scope, covering the breaking up or combining of existing holdings; it implies no broader development objectives, even though ancillary supporting measures may become involved. On the other hand, (2) signifies a re-arrangement of ownership rights and other institutions associated with land in the interests of the many rather than the few; it implies a national setting where effective adjustment and development are possible in the rural sector as an integral part of a national development policy, and it thus forms part of a broad national development picture in which adjustments in land-holding are considered strategic and essential in the national interest. Finally, (3) includes overall improvements in rural life and an improved relationship of rural people to the land, i.e., possibly narrower than (1) and as broad as (2); it includes the entire legal, customary and institutional framework in which agriculture is carried on but is usually applied to specific projects or range of projects within the broad field. On the basis of these distinctions, an effective program for (2) should have the following attributes: (a) a determination to carry through the objective of land reform; concentrated land-ownership not only retards capital investment in agriculture but also retards general business and industrial development, resulting in a socio-economic situation unsuited to the "take-off" for a favorable rate of economic growth. (b) government planning in the use of land-water resources should form part of country-wide comprehensive planning; although land-use planning should be part of overall planning, it should be comprehensive within itself, and on a long-term basis but subject to short-term plans to meet currently arising problems and needs. This also involves the analysis of basic information on land and people, land surveys and land economics research, the classification of land-use capabilities and designation of priority areas in program operations, land improvements, a supervised agricultural credit program for new owner-cultivators, farmers' co-operatives to finance, service and help new owners, and a massive educational and training program for those servicing and helping new owners at all levels of government. (c) In making capital and technical assistance available to countries, it is very important to provide the necessary support for rural institutions to service the changing needs of the people involved, bearing in mind the great technical skill and social engineering involved. Thus, organized planning and programming for land reform should be designed as a course of action to reach desired ends; even at its best, planning should not be an end in itself but a means to better and faster programming. Data collection and analysis should be for specific purposes, to avoid the accumulation of data and plans and the postponement of action. It should be clearly understood that land reform comprises a number of basic elements—it is not an entity in itself.

158C Adams, Warren, E., "Reflections on Recent Land Reform Experience in Irag," Land Economics (Madison, Wis.), 39(2), May 1963: 199-203.

1.244 This article reviews experiences under the Miri Sirf Land
Development program [illegible] Iraq, a land settlement effort spanning
4.15 the decade immediately prior to the revolution.

158D Zartman, William, "Farming and Land Ownership in Morocco," Land Economics (Madison, Wis.), 39(2), May 1963: 187-198.

1.131 The weakness of Moroccan agriculture can be found above all,
according to the author, in the static and backward system of
4.14 ownership. Two of farming's three drawbacks refer to proprietor-
ial problems: (1) the traditional sector dominates Moroccan
farming and resists attempts at modernization; (2) private property
is either too large or too little, and all but a small segment is
in the traditional sector; (3) communal ownership, either public
or tribal, encourages frozen patterns of exploitation that are
both backward and uneconomic. During the five years of independ-
dence, nearly every type of solution has been proposed or tried.
Yet, unless a coordinated campaign is planned against one or more
of the three agricultural weak points, Moroccan farming and rural
ownership may well present the same picture five, ten, or more
years hence.

158E Hill, F.G., "Regional Aspects of Economic Development," Land Economics (Madison, Wis.), 39(2), May 1962: 85-98.

3.02 This article attempts "to show how regional development
helps to shape and is shaped by national development, how national
economic policy has differential effects on regions, and why
policy should be adopted to regional conditions."

158F Neale, Walter C., "The Indian Peasant, the State and Economic Development," Land Economics (Madison, Wis.), 38(4), November 1962: 281-291.

1.021 It now seems possible to trace the effects of village society
upon the functioning of the village economy and to determine how
4.02 the village society and economy respond or fail to respond to
the efforts of government. The obstacles faced by the state in
3.08 inducing the villager to change his ways and to set off along a
new path of economic development are great. The characteristics
7.21 are hierarchies of power, wealth, and ritual, each continuing
today to reinforce the others; a system of distribution of income
7.231 centering around shares in kind at harvest time; and a system of
morally imperative loyalties more important to the villager than
loyalty to the state or loyalty to a system of national justice,
and, as are moral imperatives the world over, often more important
than economic gain or efficiency. Efforts to spread community
projects over all of India have been halting and unsatisfactory.
But there is hope that the state will modify its efforts in the
light of lessons learned.

Propositions

1.021 (1) If a cash crop economy is introduced into a society that was previously characterized by a symbiotic relationship between
4.07 landlord and tenant operating near the subsistence level, then an "increasing divergence of attitude and interest
4.17 between landlord and tenant"will result. (P. 285.)
Evidence: Author's historical analysis of landlord-
5.062 tenant relationship in India, and how they were affected by British laws and innovations.

4.08 (2) If a cash crop is introduced into an underdeveloped farming area, then the landlord's power and independence are likely
5.062 to increase relative to the village craftsmen, since the landlord can now buy what he needs from other places.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

1.021 (3) If a cash crop is introduced into an underdeveloped farming area where landlord-tenant relations were previously charac-
4.07 terized by symbiosis and traditional relations, and the money for these new crops goes only to the landlords, the
4.08 probability is that there will develop a system of "monetary exploitation of the tenants, laborers, craftsmen, and
4.17 servants of the village,"
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.
5.06

1580 Cook, H.L., "The New Agrarian Reform Law and Economic Development in Venezuela," Land Economics (Madison, Wis.), 37(1), February 1961: 5-17.

1.038 Early in 1960, the new government of Venezuela adopted an agrarian reform law. This paper aims to describe some of the
3.02 bases for social unrest, some facets of the development problem, and some of the important respects in which the economy may differ
4.14 from that found in many underdeveloped countries. The chief provisions of the new agrarian reform act, which appear to establish a ten-point program are listed. The agrarian reform seems to be aimed at the needs of the squatters, share tenants, and farm laborers, as well as small owners and also the landless in general who may not be on farms. Some tenure and productivity data are supplied. The results which may be expected from the Agrarian Reform Law are given and there is a summary of its unique features.

158H Gittinger, J. P., "United States Policy Toward Agrarian Reform in Underdeveloped Nations," Land Economics (Madison, Wis.), 37(3), August 1961: 195-205.

1.06 3.17 4.14 7.15 The author surveys the policy and action of the United States towards agrarian reform since 1950. One expression of United States concern about agrarian reform has been the official support accorded FAO efforts. Since 1953, FAO has been active in the field of land tenure, organizing conferences, providing experts to work in various countries and issuing publications. Americans have participated in these FAO activities, but the initiative has remained with the host governments or with private Americans, since opportunities for official American policy initiative in particular nations must remain extremely limited. The real test of United States policy toward agrarian reform is evidenced in American diplomatic activity and in the administration of bilateral foreign aid. The author refers to three Asian countries as furnishing interesting case studies for peacetime foreign aid policy: the Philippines, where he summarizes American policy as "an opportunity lost;" Taiwan, "success following failure," and Viet Nam, "struggle for peasant loyalty."

158I Hashimi, Rasool M.H., and Alfred L. Edwards, "Land Reform in Iraq: Economic and Social Implications," Land Economics (Madison, Wis.), 37(1), February 1961: 68-81.

1.244 4.14 The aim of this paper is to review the land tenure system in Iraq and to analyze the possible economic and social changes that will result from the implementation of the more recent agrarian reform. After tracing the historical background, the authors deal with the Agrarian Reform Law which was passed in 1958, largely modelled on the Egyptian law of 1952. The main objectives of the Law were: (1) to raise the standard of living of a major segment of citizens—the peasants—and to provide for the raising of their social standards, and (2) to raise the level of agricultural production in the country as a major component of a growing national income. Some of the principal features of the Act are: a ceiling on land ownership, setting up of Agricultural Cooperative Societies, and the organization of agricultural relationships and contracts. The economic and social implications of the new land reform are also treated.

158J Long, Erven J., "The Economic Basis of Land Reform in Underdeveloped
Economies," Land Economics (Madison, Wis.), 37(2), May 1961:
123-132.

4.02 The author concludes that much careful research is needed
on the relations of farm size to productivity in both its static
4.11 and dynamic dimensions and in terms truly relevant to underdeveloped,
over-populated societies. Research is also needed
4.14 into the most effective means of introducing technological changes
which will capitalize on abundant labor. To the writer the
6.082 weight of the evidence thus far is in favor of an effective research-extension
program, supplemented by a set of government or
cooperative services, in support of a flexible system of small
scale, owner-operated farms as the proper goal of land reform
policy.

158K Clarenbach, F.A., "Ceylon's Ten-year Plan and Prospects," Land
Economics (Madison, Wis.), 36(2), May 1960: 188-194.

1.232 This article discusses the prospects for economic development
in Ceylon. The author concentrates upon an analysis of
3.02 Ceylon's ten-year Plan and emphasizes the necessity of reducing
the country's birthrate.

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158L Feder, Ernest, "Feudalism and Agricultural Development: The Role
of Controlled Credit in Chile's Agriculture," Land Economics
(Madison, Wis.), 36(1), February 1960: 92-108.

1.035 The author considers that the basic reason underlying the
failure of Chilean agriculture to keep up with its present growing
4.05 needs should be sought in its semi-feudal structure. The
Chilean government has attempted, through the organization of a
4.14 controlled "development credit" system, to spark the country's
agriculture into a higher gear of activity. It is, however,
4.16 doubtful whether the program is adequate to achieve its proposed
objective within the structure of Chile's agriculture. The topic
7.231 of this inquiry is the implementation of the credit program and
more specifically, the manner in which credit has been allocated
among farmers. It was found that this allocation is highly "unequal."
Larger estate owners have succeeded in obtaining the lion
share of the benefits while medium-sized and small farmers operate
under severe disadvantages as far as agricultural credit is concerned.
The author feels that the experience with development
credit may well turn out to be another indication that the present-day
farm ownership and management pattern seriously hinders
agricultural development in Chile.

158M Johnson, V. Webster, "Agriculture in the Economic Development of Iran," Land Economics (Madison, Wis.), 36(4), November 1960: 313-321.

1.235 This paper centers around the place of rural institutions in the economic development of Iranian agriculture. As background
3.02 it deals with some relationships between agriculture and the total economy and, for illustrative purposes, with an institutional look
4.05 at the economic feasibility of some rural projects. But the central thesis is that institutional changes are a necessary part
4.07 of the take-off for substantial, progressive economic growth.

158N Marcus, Edward, "Agriculture and the Development in Tropical Africa," Land Economics (Madison, Wis.), 26(2), May 1960: 172-180.

1.01 The possibilities for improvement in the productivity of tropical African agriculture are very limited. There is no ap-
3.16 parent likelihood that future growth rates will differ sharply from the recent past so that we could look to it as the catalyst
4.06 to spark a rapid rate of internal economic improvement. At best there is the hope of somewhat higher consumption levels and perhaps a contribution to exports which would help to pay for the necessary imports. Even this limited contribution would have to be aided by deliberate government efforts. Hence, any successful development plan must make provision for some material help to the rural sector and must divert part of the technical resources and know-how to this basic industry.

158O Sampson, R.J., "Another View of Comparative Regional Development," Land Economics (Madison, Wis.), 36(2), May 1960: 215-220.

3.01 Sampson discusses why he assumes that industrialized regions import greater tonnage than they export, while the reverse is
3.02 true of regions which are not industrialized. Applying this assumption to ICC data, he describes and explains the changes in
3.08 relative industrialization.

158P Flores, Edmundo, "The significance of land-use changes in the economic development of Mexico," Land Economics (Madison, Wis.), 35(2), May 1959: 115-124.

1.043 In connection with metropolitan growth, industrialization, and settlement of irrigated areas, changes in land use reflect
4.14 increased intensity of production, increased total agricultural

5.09 income and a shrinking farm population. They "reveal a new, dynamic and diversified economic structure, endowed with a high production potential and a vastly increased resource quantum."

158Q Higgins, B., "Economic Development in Underdeveloped Areas: Past and Present," Land Economics (Chicago), 31(3), August 1955: 179-195.

3.01 Higgins discusses: (1) economic factors, (2) political factors, (3) sociological factors, and (4) technological factors
3.02 related to economic development. He concludes with policy suggestions regarding what should be done to speed development of
3.14 the underdeveloped nations.

7.16

Propositions

3.14 (1) The probability of economic development will be increased if the ideology of a society encourages values favorable to
7.61 entrepreneurship. (P. 185.)
Evidence: Historical generalization from European experience.

3.19 (2) If a country introduces comprehensive social benefits prematurely, then the pace of economic development will be
3.02 decreased. (P. 189.)
Evidence: Not specifically substantiated. He suggests that the real income of European wage-earners declined in the beginning of the Industrial Revolution.

159A "Important Tasks and Problems of Agricultural Co-operation in Carrying Through Economic Development Plans," Madras J. Co-operation, 53(4), October 1961: 171-182.

1.021 The article explains briefly the chief obstacles to agricultural development in India and discusses the role of co-operatives
4.17 in tackling the basic problem of increasing agricultural productivity. In this connection tha author has described at some length
4.18 the various types of co-operative institutions, namely, the credit co-operatives, higher financial institutions, land mortgage banks, marketing and processing co-operatives, copoperative sugar factories, co-operative farming societies, co-operative dairying and fisheries, handicrafts and industrial co-operatives and their role in economic development. The author has also discussed in the article some of the problems faced by these societies in their actual working and suggested certain steps to overcome them.

159B Natesan, P., "The Relationship Between the State and the Co-operatives in Developing Countries," Madras J. Co-operation, 53(2), August 1961: 57-64.

1.021 In this article, the author has traced the policy of the Government of India in recent years in regard to the co-operative
4.05 movement in accordance with the recommendations of the Rural Credit Survey. The role of the Reserve Bank of India, the State Bank of
4.17 India, the Central and State Governments and the activities of the different institutions created in furtherance of this policy have
7.231 been briefly reviewed, which indicates that the State has taken a great deal of active interest (including participation) in all spheres of credit, marketing, procession, farming, dairying, warehousing, cottage industries, training and educatinn, etc. In the opinion of the author, this policy of vigorous support by the State has already paid good dividends. The movement has now become a dynamic instrument of democratic planning.

160A Sharma, J. N., "Pattern of Land Holdings in a Gujarat Village," Maharaja Sayajirao Univ. Baroda, 11(2), July 1962: 17-30.

1.021 Data collected as part of an economic survey of Sarsavani village in the Gujarat state during the crop year 1959-1960 have

4.14 been analyzed and presented in this article to show the extent and distribution -- among different occupational groups of owner-

4.15 ship holdings in the village, average size as well as size distribution of ownership and operational holdings, extent of concentration of land, etc. Predominance of peasant proprietorship, above average (in comparison with the all-India figures) size of ownership and operational holdings, and concentration of land holdings in sizes above what is considered to be the optimum under Indian conditions, are some of the important conclusions arrived at by the author. The article also discusses in some detail the practice of leasing land in the village and the effects of tenancy reforms on the mode of cultivation.

Propositions

No propositions.

161B Dammann, N., "Thai Villagers and Communications — A Research Project," Multiplier Internatl. Devlpmt., 4(10), June 1964: 4-7.

1.027

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162A Degani, A. H., "The Land Development Authority, An Economic Necessity?," *Malayan Econ. Rev.*, 9(2), 1964: 75=82.

1.029 A description is given of the Land Development Authority of
Malaya, the work of which will not only increase the total cultivated
4.06 area but will also create some 25,000 new smallholdings
(largely seven-acre rubber smallholdings). This policy measure is
4.16 appraised from two viewpoints: the creation of new smallholdings
and the achievement of self-sufficiency in rice. It is maintained
4.17 that both represent a waste of resources in one way or another.
In the second part the establishment of an authority to open up and develop new land is questioned. On the assumption that new land is available, several factors are examined which could hinder land establishment, viz., risk, ignorance and institutional rigidities. In each case it is concluded that the factor is not such as to necessitate a land development authority. It is considered that the role of the Government lies rather in the direction of education, research and legislation to remove institutional bottlenecks, so as to induce private investment in the rural areas. It is concluded that the land development schemes represent a very heavy call on the resources available for public sector investment, and that since these resources are limited, alternatives to the land schemes should have merited a more careful examination.

162B Klein, S., "Land Problem and Economic Growth in India and China: Another View," *Malayan Econ. Rev.*, 5(2), October 1960: 66-80.

1.021 The author states that in the past year or two a number of
economists in different parts of the world have published papers
3.02 with the implicit conclusion that India and the other underdeveloped
nations of Asia ought to adopt China as a growth model. In
4.14 particular a paper by F. F. Clairmonte (*Malayan Econ. Rev.* 5(1),
April 1960: 65) is considered, and the author reviews the issues and questions he raised from another point of view. The author recommends that co-operative forms of organization should be utilized in India, with the exception of producer co-operatives, which are open to subversion and can be used as stepping stones toward the commune system. He considers that socially and psychologically, a nation has much to gain from an emphasis on private ownership and management of land and other productive property. Given decidedly helpful but not overbearing government aid to such property owners, however small the individual properties may be, he is convinced that strong economic and political as well as social progress will be registered.

163A Sachchidananda, "Leadership and Culture Cahnge in Kullu," Man in India, 44(2), April-June 1964: 116-131.

1.021 Traditional leadership in Kullu is generally provided by the
secular and religious head men in the village, the panchayat, the
5.08 erstwhile landlord, and the government watchman. Since 1952, a
deep dent in traditional authority was made by the introduction of
7.21 the statutory panchayats. By 1957, when community development
began to make an impact on the life of the villagers, the ground
was prepared for the emergence of new leadership, S. Panna. He
has to face opposition from some traditional leaders, but some
others joined his side. The authorities of the Community Development Block indirectly bolstered up his position, while he became
the best champion for propogating new ideas. The achievements of
new leadership are remarkable in all fields of economic development. The standard of living as well as the levels of aspiration
have gone up. Never before had all villagers stood so unitedly
for a leader and a program as now. This is one of the few
examples in which community development has led to a strengthening
of community sense among villagers.

163B Bose, Nirmal Kumar, "On Communal Separatism," Man in India, 43(2), April-June 1963: 87-91.

1.021 Disagreement is expressed with the position that instituted
cultural change for the primitive tribal people should be gradual
4.10 and smooth. It is noted that these tribes are exploited, and that
it is dangerous to preach to one community that they are exploited
7.22 by another community. This prevents the truly exploited from
working together to better their position. On primitive production methods among tribes, the government should aim at a system
of production both mechanically and socially efficient.

163C Dasgupta, S., "Innovation and Innovators in Indian Villages," Man in India, 43(1), 1963: 27-34.

1.021 Adopters of improved practices have been classified as: (1)
innovators, (2) early adopters, and (3) late adopters. These
4.10 categories differ in socio-economic status, education, outside
contact, land ownership and tenure, and social participation.
Innovators scored high in all these variables, compared with early
and late adopters. Social leaders were also found to lead in a
agriculture, to be well educated, "change-oriented", and capable
of developing a broader outlook towards change.

163D Rastogi, P. N., "Faction Situation at Brahminpura," Man in India, 43(4), October-December 1963: 328-336.

1.021 This article is a study of the development change of power
factions, and caste variables in the Indian village of Brahminpura.
7.11 The concept of "faction" is examined; the notion of "dominant
caste" is chosen as a research tool. The village population was
approximately 550 in 1962, with 13 component castes, of which the
Brahmins and their sub-castes predominate (50%). The Shukla subcaste
satisfies four major elements of dominance: (1) numerical
strength; (2) economic and political power; (3) ritual status;
and (4) western education and occupations. However, the solidarity
of the Shuklas has been diminishing due to: (a) population
mobility out of the town; (b) education; (c) various property disputes
and resulting "individualism", and (d) the increasing importance
of other castes and sub-castes in the village's economic-political
matters. Faction formation does not appear to "reveal
a caste pattern," however. Castes, upper and lower, split on the
bases of differences of interest and concomitant formatimn of
multi-caste groupings concerning the recruitment of personnel into
factions: these groupings are by nature multicaste.

163E Saikia, P. D., "Village Leadership in North-East India," Man in India, 43(2), April-June 1963: 92-99.

1.021 Data were collected relating to a plan for economic, social,
and cultural regeneration from six villages of Assam and Tripura.
7.21 It was shown that someone with initiative can enthuse and lead the
rural population, irrespective of his official or economic position.
While in the nontribal villages the traditional leader is
losing his influence, in a purely tribal society his association
is essential for ensuring participation of the masses in the
various socio-economic activities.

163F Bose, Nirmal Kumar, "Some Observations of Industrialization and Its Effects on Tribal Life," Man in India, 42(1), January-March 1962: 5-9.

1.021 The present rate of industrializatinn has not dissolved the old
ties of kin, neighborhood, caste, or language loyalties fast
3.11 enough. This is because industrialization arose under colonial
conditions, and was further carried on under independence, on the
3.171 basis of foreign loans. As a result, industrialization is looked
on as the job of government or the ruling party, with little personal
7.22 commitment. When industrialization first takes place, the
prrson becomes comparatively personalized. But later on, he becomes
communally-minded, to protect his economic interest. Adibasi
unions, Bihari unions, etc., are formed. It is necessary to organize
people along the lines of their economic interest, regardless
of caste or language.

1644 Remba, O., "The Middle East in 1960 — An Economic Survey," *Mid. East. Aff.*, 12(3), March 1961: 66-81.

1.01 The economies of the Middle East countries profited from another year of relative stability although none of their intractable disputes was settled. 1.02 The competition between East and West largely took the form of substantial credits to most countries in the area, yet none of these tied itself exclusively to either the 3.02 Western or the Eastern bloc. The direction of development everywhere in the area is industrialization; light and heavy industries financed with foreign credits. It is looked upon as a means of raising living standards, strengthening the economies and enhancing prestige. The severe droughts of the previous three years had them even combined their efforts for this goal with the development of large-scale irrigation facilities to replace the presently predominant system of dry farming. Whereas each country coped and dealt with its problems in the light of its own circumstances and political obligations, there was more evidence than before that schemes and pacts for regional co-operation made an increased impact on the economies of the Middle Eastern countries.

1645 Okyar, O., "The Turkish Stabilization Experiment — Before and After," *Mid. East. Aff.*, 11(8), August-September 1960: 238-246.

1.03 The external rescue operation of 1958 combined with the internal restrictions of money and credit have given the Turkish 3.04 economy the much needed breathing spell. But this will not be sufficient if not accompanied by constructive steps and the return of confidence to solve Turkey's economic problems. A new philosophy of economic development in a mixed economy needs to be worked out. The great lesson of events of recent years has been the futility of trying to force economic development through inflation which upsets the whole economy. If this central lesson has been brought home, the difficulties of the past will not have been completely in vain.

165A Simmons, J. L., "Agricultural Development in Iraq: Planning and Management Failures," Middle East J., 19(2), 1965: 129-141.

1.244 Many of the failures and set-backs of agriculture in Iraq can
be traced to the management factor which is held to have been per-
4.05 sistently misunderstood. An account of agrarian reform measures
is presented and it is suggested that administrators have over-
4.06 looked the importance of marketing cooperatives and improvements in
marketing procedures. Details are provided of agricultural plan-
3.173 ning and rural credit policy and foreign technical assistance is
reviewed.

165B Simpson, D. J., "Development as a Process: The Menderes Phase in Turkey," Middle East J., 19(2), Spring 1965: 141-152.

1.233 The "Menderes Phase" is still difficult to evaluate, partly for
the political partisanship attached but also for the many paradoxes
3.02 it brought into existence. Great doses of inflation imperilled the
economy, yet at the same time brought to it a new dynamism.
3.09 Although artificially stimulated, consumer demand created a con-
sumer's market of considerable taste and sophistication and helped
to make good Turkey's enormous gap in infrastructure and social
overhead capital. The era of unplanned economic development has
led to one of carefully rationalised planning, as well as to the
political era wherein all political elements are advocates of
planned development process. There are also signs that in case of
need the suppliers of foreign aid (United States, Canada and the
six Common Market countries) will be more active and helpful.

165C Issawi, C., "Economic Development and Liberalism in Lebanon," Middle East J., 18(3), Summer 1964: 279-292.

1.239 During the last ten years relative political stability in
Lebanon was accompanied by a marked economic and social advance.
1.02 The country used its tolerance, climate and amenities to attract to
itself the regional headquarters of several big Western business
3.02 firms and there has been a considerable upsurge in agriculture.
This progress has lifted the Lebanon from the ranks of the under-
3.173 developed countries but has had one unfortunate consequence, a
sharp increase of inequality. Formerly this was one of the most
equalitarian countries of the world; today, even if the Palestine
refugees are kept out of sight, the rich are much too much in evi-
dence. Social tension is the price the country has paid for its
recent development. Looking ahead: Lebanon may be too conspicuous
and successful an example of political democracy and economic
liberalism to be easily tolerated in a region which has turned its
back on both systems.

165D Bill, J. A., "The Social and Economic Foundations of Power in Contemporary Iran," Middle East J., 17(4), Autumn 1963: 400-413.

1.235 The disproportionate distribution of rewards and priorities in Iran explains the high degree of social stratification. The existing social system has become increasingly unacceptable to various
5.06
social groups. In response to foreign influence and modernisation
5.14
a dynamic middle class, as well as a growing urban working class, have appeared. These classes have defiantly challenged Iranian
7.02
traditionalism. Power, however, is still held by the traditional ruling elements whose response and reaction to these new forces
7.11
may well determine the future of Iran.

7.12

165E Garzouzi, E., "Land Reform in Syria," Middle East J., 17(1-2), Winter-Spring 1963: 83-90.

1.240 Until 1958 the agrarian structure in Syria had a very feudal pattern: almost 70% of the rural population did not own any land.
4.12
The implementation of any reform was handicapped by the scarcity and the irregular supply of water as well as the absence of a cen-
4.14
trally controlled irrigation system. In 1958 the reform became law at the time of the probably worst three years of drought the country has ever had. It is therefore difficult to assess the impact of the reform on the standard of living of the Syrian farmer. But it seems fairly obvious that its effect could be felt as generally beneficial. A move was begun for the social and economic development of the agricultural sector, including the realisation of badly needed irrigation projects.

165F Karpat, K. H., "The People's Houses in Turkey: Establishment and Growth," Middle East J., 17(1-2), Winter 1963: 55-67.

1.233 Originally the purpose of "the people's hearths" was to bridge the gap between the intelligentsia and the people. They were to
5.04
teach the first of these the national culture which lay among the Anatolian masses and the second the rudiments of civilisation. In
5.06
essence, they were the agents of the new regime which wanted to discover the cultural and national identity of the country. The movement was a drive for modernisation and emancipation: it began as far back as 1911. After 1930, Attaturk used it as instrument for his new broad development policy. The "Hearths" were placed in the censorship of the Republican Party who influenced the movement until Attaturk's death. During the next 30 years the interest

in the movement and the help given to it fluctuated with the ideological changes in the political parties and their fortunes, but the original idea survived and after the coup of 1960 the military government reactivated the institution, although the name was changed to "people's" houses.

165G Weiker, W. F., "Academic Freedom and Problems of Higher Education in Turkey," Middle East J., 16(3), Summer 1962: 279-294.

1.233 The question of academic freedom in Turkey has many sides. It
is unlikely that the next few years will see a significant separa-
6.06 tion of universities from politics in this country. Professors and
students are frequently directly active in partisan capacities.
The contribution of university faculties to the solution of public problems is potentially very great; but the boundary line of academic freedom is in these circumstances difficult to draw. The high status of professors in Turkey today increases their obligation to serve their country. Universities must justify their autonomy and make it benefit the national development. Often, though, the faculties have proved either unable or unwilling to undertake needed reforms on their own initiative.

165H Carey, J. P. C., and A. C. Carey, "The Two Developing Worlds of Morocco. A Case Study in Economic Development and Planning," Middle East J., 16(4), 1962: 457-475.

1.131 Nearly three-quarters of the Moroccan people work the soil, but
they receive less than a third of the national income. Cultivation
3.07 methods are still traditional and most plots are pitifully small
owing to the division of land by inheritance. The government is
3.11 developing irrigation of dry areas and tries to modernize the old
pattern of agriculture, but it is difficult to teach the peasants
4.06 to co-operate. The mining of phosphates and manganese are the
country's second greatest source of riches, but most of the pro-
4.08 ducts are exported in raw form and do not benefit the starved soil
at home. Industry, too, is torn by the conflict between a deep
4.10 reluctance to give up antiquated methods and modern planning.
Better general education, stimulation of private industry and
4.14 planned economic development may show some effect. Although new
forces are at work, only careful overall planning and agreement on
7.231 policies within the government will set Morocco on the way to
reconcile the dual drives in her society.

165I Van Nieuwenhuijze, C. A. O., "The Near Eastern Village: A Profile," Middle East J., 16(3), Summer 1962: 295-308.

1.01 The village is one of the three main forms of social life in
the Near East. In every country in the area the number of vil-
1.02 lagers is greater than that of urban and nomadic populations taken
together. The place of the village in the wider context of society
5.08 and its isolation (even today) is not accidental, but basic. The
author examines this special trait of the region in its origins,
7.21 social, economic and political contexts and the likely changes that
greater integration into the state and modern life may bring about.

165J Tesdell, L., "Planning for Technical Assistance: Iraq and Jordan," Middle East J., 15(4), Autumn 1961: 389-402.

1.241 It is perhaps not surprising that Iraq and Jordan have failed
to establish effective planning and co-ordinating machinery. The
1.244 political upheavals in both countries during this period have
militated against the achievement of that degree of national self-
3.07 discipline which would be necessary. Technical assistance has been
requested on an unplanned basis, with the aid-giving agencies being
3.173 required to provide the minimal planning and co-ordination that
has been achieved. The technical expertise available through
7.231 United States and United Nations assistance programs has not,
unfortunately, been put to use by these two governments in such a
way as to produce the maximum impact on long-term development.
Hope for improvement in the future seems to lie in the development
of stronger national unity buttressed by greater political maturity
and wisdom on the part of political leaders.

165K Lewis, William H., "Rural Administration in Morocco," Middle East J., 14(1), 1960: 45-60.

1.131 The author first outlines the aims of rural administration in
Morocco, commenting on the need for rural areas to arrive at some
7.19 comprehensive consensus on communal goals and aspirations in order
that government programs may be formulated with clarity. Rural
7.21 Morocco is half traditional and half transitional and so respon-
sibility for interpreting the needs of the scattered rural commu-
nity has fallen largely upon the national leadership in Rabat.
Developments since 1956 are outlined and it is shown that Moroccan
rural administration had tended to follow many procedural patterns
inherited from the French-Spanish protectorate period. Details
are given of a program formulated by the Moroccan government to
meet the needs of the rural population in which immediate priority

is given to preparing for nation-wide elections, a prerequisite for which is the completion of detribalization. The article concludes with a description of some efforts being made towards economic and social progress.

165L Morris, J. A., "Recent Problems of Economic Development in Turkey," Middle East J., 14(1), Winter 1960: 1-14.

1.233 Turkey has aimed at economic parity with the West, since its
development program began to lift the economy from its static con-
3.04 dition in 1948. Great economic advances have been made, but growth
has been retarded by the lack of a central co-ordination agency,
3.07 and the consequent lack of co-ordination except for that supplied
by the Chambers of Commerce. Much of Turkey's development is state
7.231 directed. Agriculturally Turkey is self-sufficient and she has
strategic mineral resources. The GNP grew 57% between 1948-1957; transport facilities and heavy industry were developed, but these were financed by the creation of excessive internal and external debt. The excessive inflationary tendencies of the Turkish economy were reflected in its difficulties in export markets. The lesson of Turkish economic development is the need for central coordination and the necessity to use the price mechanism in apportioning resources between the private and public sectors.

165M Weingrod, A., "Change and Continuity in a Moroccan Immigrant Village in Israel," Middle East J., 14(3), Summer 1960: 277-291.

1.234 This article reviews the experience of one group of immigrants
in a new co-operative village populated by Moroccan Jews. This
5.06 form of settlement should combine family autonomy in production
with co-operative farming techniques and seeks to build traditions
5.14 of co-operative village farming. The Moroccan families who moved
into the village in 1954 were joined together by administrative
7.11 decision rather than by a process of natural development. They
shared, however, many social characteristics, most of them having lived in towns in Morocco. Each family was allocated the same type of house and equal shares of land and had the use of all communal facilities. These people who had been "Jews" in Morocco, became "Moroccans" in Israel, which led to new types of social alignment. Rural life and farm work presented the newcomers with great problems, but in general they have adapted themselves fairly well, the leadership in the group going to the young who physically and mentally could adjust more easily and quickly. Yet, while the newcomers have adopted important cultural links like the use of Hebrew, the desire for Western items and techniques and the

responsibilities of citizenship in Israel, broad areas of cultural differences are still stubbornly maintained. The development reported here is not unique, but typical of other Moroccan settlements in Israel.

165N Mahhouk, Adnan, "Recent Agricultural Development and Bedouin Settlement in Syria," Middle East J., 10, 1956: 167-176.

1.240 Mahhouk discusses factors leading Syrian Bedouins toward
sedentarization, and other factors leading them away from this
5.06 goal. He argues that efforts to settle the Bedouins should con-
tinue, but with the realization that the process is necessarily
gradual.

166A Anderson, J. N. D., "The Isma'ili Khojas of East Africa," Mid. East Stud., 1(1), October 1964: 21-39.

1.01 The community of Khojas, chiefly from Cutch or Kathiawar,
began to settle in Zanzibar and the mainland of East Africa early
1.123 in the 19th century. Originally Hindus, they were converted to
the "Eastern Isma'ili" religion and accept the Agha Khan as their
5.064 Imam and successor to the Prophet. The Agha cannot only interpret
but even abrogate the prescriptions of the Qur'an. This means that
5.14 their beliefs have very concrete and practical implications. The
Khojas find a full and overriding authority for any innovation in
the fact that the Imam can speak with the divine voice. There is
a reconciliation between the principle of absolute authority and
great initiative on the part of the community itself. The Isma'ili
pattern of life seems to combine all that they consider best in
both the Eastern and Western systems, as is shown in their latest
Constitution of 1962 which deals with the personal law of the
community, mainly in relation to marriage and connected rights
or duties. It is considered likely that territorial law will
acknowledge the new constitution as valid.

167A Morse, John W., "Demography, Feedback, add Decision Making for
Economic and Social Development," Millbank Memor. Fund Quart., 2,
April 1964: 301-328.

1.031 The key points of the rural development activity of the Peru-
vian Office of Development are reviewed, and the "evolutionary
3.02 process of development" is analyzed. Man takes the available facts
which, through a process of planning and balancing with values, he
3.07 uses to make decisions. Then, through a process of administration,
he acts on the basis of these decisions. Vital for developing
5.07 nations is an organized means of helping interdependent individuals
and groups to evolve a "symbiosis" which allows for the use of
5.17 technology, knowledge, and resources for the greatest common good.
For this to be achieved, there will have to be a change in the
points of view of specialists. Since the common denominator of
the problems of development is man, his study is a "natural" for
public health. In underdeveloped areas, public health must be
concerned with: (1) the nature of the socio-psychological factors;
(2) the relationship between the socio-psychological and condi-
tioning factors; (3) the relationship among the conditioning
factors themselves. The philosophy and rationale of a new approach
is one thing; execution is another. There are two problems in
gaining acceptance of the use of empirical methods in Latin
America: (a) the negative attitude toward empiricism in general,
and (b) the extreme shortage of personnel. At this point, the Peru
Plan indicates how this work is to be undertaken in a new Office
of Social Development within their Ministry of Public Health.
Their rural development plan is highlighted.

168A Saab, Gabriel, "Rationalization of Agriculture and Land Tenure
Problems in Egypt," Middle Econ. Papers, 1960: 65-90.

1.133 After surveying the main characteristics of Egyptian agricul-
ture, the study indicates that rationalization implies an increase
4.14 in yields and other developments and how these can be achieved.
Land tenure since 1952 is reviewed under the main developments in
4.16 limitation of land ownership and distribution of expropriated lands
to small holders, and regulation of tenancy and share cropping.
Land area is being expanded through reclamation, but a liberal
credit policy is needed to give impetus to the projects. The rela-
tion of rationalization to land tenure and population increase is
indicated.

169A Moravcsik, Michael J., "Technical Assistance and Fundamental Research in Underdeveloped Countries," Minerva, 2(2), Winter 1964: 197-209.

3.01 The question of how basic scientific research should be built up in an underdeveloped country should receive attention because:
3.173 (1) competent educators in advanced sciences must have constant active contact with the forefronts of science; (2) research workers
6.06 in applied fields often rely on their colleagues in the basic sciences for advice and evaluation; (3) the development of scientific life is a long-term proposition reaching over decades and hence must be started early. Advanced education in sciences must be carried out on home soil because: (a) education abroad is costly in terms of foreign exchange; (b) Western institutions of higher learning are crowded and the competition keen; and (c) it is important that advanced schools be associated with the country's newly established research facilities. Scientific research requires buildings, equipment, and manpower. The last is generally unavailable, resulting in inefficient use of the equipment. A program of roving mechanics from developed countries would help remedy this defect. Library facilities are also generally inadequate, and could be improved by donating cheap editions of Western books and periodicals. The most serious problem is shortage of high quality due to scientific isolation.

169B Singh, Amar Kumar, "Impact of Foreign Study: The Indian Experience," Minerva, 1(1), Autumn 1962: 43-53.

1.021 This is a discussion of the role of foreign education as a high status symbol, and as a means of upward social mobility in
5.14 Indian society, for the persons of the middle-class families, who constitute the larger section of Indian students abroad. Data were
6.06 collected in a questionnaire survey of the attitudes and adjustments of Indian students in Britain. For many Indians, the impact of foreign study is very considerable. They are very favorably impressed by the social efficiency of the Western society, its serious attitude to work, and the critical, but inspiring, Western teachers. Their sojourn in a foreign country increases many students' sense of identification with their motherland. For the first time, many students read about their cultural heritage, national history and contemporary social problems. Students return with a keen desire to improve the conditions in their country, to make is as advanced as the Western countries, and to pursue creative and fruitful professional careers. However, many of them soon surrender to the pressures of the traditional, organized society and powerful vested interests. This, and their feeling of estrangement from their fellow-countrymen and family members, especially their wives, who are more traditional and much less educated, add to students' unhappiness and frustration.

170A Abercrombie, K. C., "Subsistence Productinn and Economic Development," Mon. Bull. Agric. Econ. Statist., 14(5), 1965: 1-8.

4.11 Subsistence production is here defined as "that part of agricultural production which is not marketed but is used directly by the producers and their families." Difficulties in determining the real extent and importance of subsistence production arise from such borderline cases as barter transactions and wages paid in kind, and also where production is collectively organized (e.g., on kolkhozy, sovkhozy, and communes in the USSR, East Europe, and mainland China). In most developing countries only sales of agricultural products on organized markets are known with much accuracy. There are also conceptual problems in the valuation of production that is not sold, and any method of making such a valuation is neceesarily arbitrary. It is, however, convenient to value subsistence production at producer prices on the production side of the national accounts and at retail prices on the consumption side, with the corresponding imputed value of household services shown as a separate item on the production side. On this basis, tabulated estimates of the imputed value of subsistence production are given as percentage of the total value of agricultural production. Most of the limited data for developing countries relate to Africa, where the share of subsistence in total production is usually assumed to be greatest, ranging from 20% in Rhodesia to about 80% in Ethiopia. For Taiwan the figure is 63%; for the Philippines 28%; and for India 63-81% (for different grains). In the developed countries, subsistence production has fallen to 1% (United Kingdom), 3% (United States), and 5% in Canada where it was as high as 14% only in 1926. For Japan, the decline has also been rapid, viz., from 32% in 1950-1954 to 21% in 1960-1963, and though data for the USSR are difficult to interpret, the figures appear to have been 68% in 1913, 60% in 1940, 55% in 1953, and 48% in 1958-1962. Some of the changes to be expected with economic development are then examined, and it is suggested that a dual approach is needed in the agricultural policies of the developing countries. The expansion of agricultural production for the market, bringing a decline in the share of subsistence production, is a basic aspect of development, but in addition to the measures needed to increase market productions, steps must also be taken to improve subsistence agriculture itself since it is likely to continue to play its large role not only in the productinn of food supplies for millions of people but also in their whole livelihood. Subsistence farming need not itself be regarded as a sign of backwardness, rather can it play an important part in ensuring continuous social stability in times of rapid change while becoming itself more efficient and providing the necessary training ground for the adoption of new techniques that eventual market production would require.

170B "Agriculture in Economic Development," Mon. Bull. Agric. Econ. Statist., 13(2), 1964: 1-14.

4.01 The article considers the contribution of agriculture to economic development as a whole, indicates the ways in which a prosperous and expanding agriculture can contribute to the entire process of economic growth and discusses the means by which this contribution man be further strengthened. It is in no way suggested that agriculture should be developed at the expense of industry. It is reiterated that FAO has consistently emphasized the importance of industrialization, not only in the context of general economic development, but also as an exsential factor for agricultural development itself. FAO has stressed rather the need for a balanced and integrated development of the farm and non-farm sectors in which neither runs too far ahead nor falls too far behind the other. Five main aspects of agriculture's contribution to economic progress are considered: (1) as a source of food and raw materials, (2) as an earner of foreign exchange, (3) as a base for industrialization, (4) as a source of capital (5) as a source of manpower. Finally, the close interrelationships between sectors which underlie economic development are emphasized. Stress is laid on the need for careful and integrated planning if development of the farm and non-farm sectors is to proceed in step without the internal strains and dislocations which inevitably set back economic progress.

170C Saco, A. M., "Land Reform as an Instrument of Change, With Special Reference to Latin America," Mon. Bull. Agric. Econ. Statist., 13(12), 1964: 3-9.

1.03

4.14 The main relationships between the land-tenure system and the economy of a country can be examined from the restricted point of view of agricultural development alone and from the wider one of general economic progress. In discussing the changes that may be expected as a consequence of land-reform measures, a distinction should be made between (1) intrasectorial, and (2) intersectorial effects. Agriculture cannot make adequate economic progress when farmers lack the necessary incentives to produce. Under present land tenure conditions in most of the underdeveloped areas of the world, low productivity permeates the entire agricultural economy, with the notable exception of the large commercial plantations (generally producers of coffee, sugar, cocoa, cotton, etc. for export), where technology is relatively advanced and the worker/employer relationships correspond to the capitalistic development of agriculture. On the social level, it would appear that increased mobility is an important product of land reform, particularly as a result of the abolition of feudal ties. The abolition of latifundia (especially of the absentee landlord and sharecropping types) may result in an unprecedented "horizontal" mobility, though this may lead to other forms of labor exploitation. It is only when land reform promotes "vertical" mobility, i.e., permitting the rural population to improve their real income and to gain a fairer share of the accompanying benefits of higher living standards, than the real social goals of land reform will have been reached. In conclusion, land reform must be regarded as a powerful instrument of change which may substantially help to transform existing economic, social and political conditions in less developed countries; its changes are, however, conditioned by the existing balance of political power, and the better the need for radical change is understood by those in control of power, the more rational will be the reform.

170D Abercrombie, K. C., "The Transition from Subsistence to Market Agriculture in Africa South of the Sahara," Mon. Bull. Agr. Econ. and Statist., 10, February 1961.

1.01 The transition to market agriculture is one of the major
changes taking place in the present phase of the economic develop-
4.07 ment of Africa. The limited available data indicate that, in all
except a few areas where export productinn is very highly developed, well over half of the region's total agricultural productinn is for subsistence and does not enter the market. After summarizing the main characteristics of subsistence agriculture and the available statistical information on the relative importance of subsistence production in the region, this article attempts to identify, first, certain preconditions for the development of market agriculture and, secondly, the more important fields in which governmant action appears to be necessary to assist this evolution.

171A "The Citizen and His Society: Attitudes of the Indian People Toward Government, Modernization and Each Other," Mthly. Publ. Opin. Surv., 11(1-2), January-February 1965: 3-48.

1.021 Political behavior has, it is seen, many variable components.
Too often voting intention is treated as a dominating instrument of
4.07 measurement. The current study does something to correct the bias
in favor of the Institute's previous surveys in this direction.
4.09 For example, the hard core of Congress supporters appear to have
different political approaches from the less loyal or fluctuating
7.13 voters. There are substantial differences on estimates of the
administration in rural and urban areas, such as, for example, on
corruption and on participation, modernization and initiative.
Even with a relatively small sample of a little over 2,000 interviews, a fund of new data has been made available largely by analysis very different from the standard tabulations by education, income and age which have been more or less mechanically used in the past. The analytic method as well as the new presentation will, it is believed, stimulate more independent research on these lines.

171B "An Opinion Survey of Rural Leaders and Officials in Panchayati Raj Institutions and Co-operatives," Mthly. Publ. Opin. Surv., 10(1-2), October-November 1964: 3-62.

1.021 This is the fourth survey in a series conducted on Panchayati
Raj institutions and on community development but the first making
7.13 a comprehensive study of the three important sets of executives in
the field -- Panchayati Raj leaders, block development officers
7.21 and executives of co-operative societies. It might, therefore,
be said to represent the structure of opinion of the executive agencies implementing the programs designed to elevate the social and economic conditions of the rural areas. How do these men, on whom lies the burden of carrying the countryside in economic development, respond to the political and economic environment which has been created by the new institutions of community development and particularly by Panchayati Raj? Broadly, the response shows that deep roots have been struck, in that the institutions are building a new political consciousness which must be considered as one of the major objectives of community development through Panchayati Raj.

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172A Terra, G. J. A., "Agricultural and Economic Development," *Netherlands J. Agric. Sci.*, 9(2), May 1961: 101-107.

3.01 This is a discussion of the objective-intrinsic factors that
might inhibit economic development in tropical and subtropical
4.01 regions. Exploitation of these areas by Westerners can explain
part of the economic lag, but climate and types of soils appear
4.12 to have kept these countries in a state of subsistence long before
the advent of Europeans. Educational and technical assistance
4.18 may help, but it is uncertain whether such help will be adequate
for the problem.

172B Joosten, J. H. L., "Perverse Supply Curves in Less Developed Economies?" *Netherlands J. Agric. Sci.*, 8(2), May 1960: 98-102.

1.023 The theory that perverse supply curves for cash-crop commodities exist in subsistence economies is very firmly held by Prof-
4.07 fessor Boeke, according to whom this theory is borne out in parti-
cular by the native rubber industry of Indonesia. An analysis of
4.08 the relationship of rubber and rice prices to exports of native
rubber in two main producing regions of Indonesia clearly shows
that where the peasant rubber producer has alternative opportunities he reacts in an entirely "normal" manner to changes in
the price of rubber relative to rice.

173C Terra, G. J. A., "Agriculture in Economically Underdeveloped Countries, Especially in Equatorial and Subtropical Regions," *Netherlands J. Agric. Sci.*, 7(3), August 1959: 216-231.

4.01 Low productivity per head in equatorial and subtropical regions
is caused by small farm size, low yields, and low unit prices.
4.11 For this situation agricultural population pressure is not considered to be the main reason. In the analysis the causes are divided
4.12 into technical causes as poor soils, short day length, weed growth,
cultural causes as shifting cultivation, absence of cattle, poor
4.14 implements, and economic causes, as in a predominantly agricultural
society no sufficient outlet at renumeraitve prices is available
4.15 for food crops.

4.16

4.17

173A Betts, T.F., "The New Farmers of Africa," New Commonwealth, 39 July 1961: 436-438.

1.01 The economic and political basis of European agriculture in
Africa are crumbling, and "only by a revolution in indigenous
4.10 agriculture can a sound foundation be laid for self-sustained
economic development." The article briefly tells about some of the
4.15 master farmer and settlement schemes by means of which African
farmers in various territories are encouraged to adopt modern methods.
6.082

173B Jones, E.A., "New Look for Uganda Agriculture," New Commonwealth, 39 June 1961: 394-395.

1.121 "In a report on crop production, the (Uganda Agricultural)
Department tacitly admits that the large sums of money which have
4.11 been spent over the last ten years on routine field work and
sporadic production drives have been largely wasted ... From now
6.082 on, instead of distributing field officers evenly over the country,
the Agricultural Department will concentrate its personnel and its
efforts on areas and individuals most ready to cooperate."

173C Spaull, Hebe, "East African Farmers Are Doing Big Business," New Commonwealth, 39 November 1961: 718-720.

1.016 The development of African agriculture in Kenya, Tanganyika,
and Uganda is "relying to an increasing extent on cooperative
1.122 organizations," according to this writer, who goes on to describe
the major accomplishments of the movement in marketing, processing,
1.121 agricultural credit, and the training of African staff for the societies.
4.16
6.082

173D Clegg, E.M., "Rural Development in Northern Rhodesia," New Commonwealth, 32 December 10, 1956: 583-585.

1.125 An account of the disappointing progress in African farming,
despite postwar policies and efforts. The Department of Agricul-
4.11 ture report for 1954-1955 is quoted: "On purely economic grounds,
the peasant farmers at Serenje are scarcely defensible." Their
average income over the preceding five years was only £ 12. The
writer suggests that a solution may be found in the development of
industry in African areas.

174A Huizenga, L. H., "The Training of the Papuan for Employment in Agriculture, Industry and Trade in Netherlands New Guinea," New Guinea Studies, 6(1), 1962: 12-33.

1.024 This article deals with the school education of the Papuan,
discussing in succession: (1) general primary education; (2)
6.04 vocational and technical training; and (3) training of young
farmers. Experience with the formation of the farmer via training
6.07 in an agricultural school has been rather disappointing.
The formatinn of the farmer by direct approach on his farm has
6.08 been successful. It is concluded that although vocational
training is a pre-requisite for development, it must be attuned
to both the needs and the possibilities of the country and the
people themselves.

175A Machow, D. W., "Nigerian Beef — The Story of a Stock-Rearing Experiment," Nigeria, 40, 1953: 314-327.

1.012
3.13
An agricultural station at Fashola, in western Nigeria, is brreding tsetse-resistant cattle to further the official policy of introducing mixed farming, to improve both soil fertility and the quality of the people's diet.

175B Okulaja, A. O., "Towards Better Poultry," Nigeria, 42, 1953: 140-149.

1.012
3.13
This article is an account of the poultry center at Fashola, in western Nigeria. The superintendent tells of the center's work in breeding and research, and in conducting training courses in practical poultry keeping.

176A Wells, J. C., "Appraising an Agricultural Project in Northern Nigeria: A Problem in Investment Evaluation," Nigerian J. Econ. Social Studies, 5(1), 1963: 127-138.

1.021
4.02
The problems involved in economically evaluating an agricultural investment project in a developing country are described in this article. A relatively simple and reliable frame of calculations to appraise a project is obtained through the direct returns criterion. Its application is illustrated by an analysis of the records and economic results of the Jere Bowl project, a mechanical cultivation scheme in Northern Nigeria.

177A Bardhan, Pranab, "External Economies, Economic Development and the Theory of Protection," Oxford Econ. Papers, 16(1), 1964: 40-54.

3.01 While the importance of external economies in the early stages
of industrialization of underdeveloped countries is now widely
3.16 accepted, there are grounds to believe that this is not adequately
reflected in the literature of international trade theory. Two
3.18 types of (irreversible) external economies are considered in this
paper: horizontal (i.e., those which are transmitted between
firms at the same stage of production) and vertical (i.e., those
that are transmitted from one stage to another). The infant-
industry argument is reinterpreted and reassessed and some impli-
cations of irreversible external economies for the accepted
theorems on tariffs and terms of trade, on the symmetry between
import and export taxes, and so on, are considered. It is also
shown how in view of vertical externalities the whole complex of
interrelated activities becomes important in determining compara-
tive advantages and how we are to choose between different com-
plexes of activities. Finally some serious reservations to the
essentially negative policy of protection are mentioned.

Propositions

No propositions.

177B Bierwag, G.O., "Balanced Growth and Technological Progress," Oxford Econ. Papers, 16(1), 1964: 55-69.

3.01 In this paper the author formally develops some two-factor,
two-product models that explicitly allow for the effects of a wide
3.02 range of economic phenomena that are thought to have a bearing
on the problems of "balanced" growth. In particular these models
3.03 allow for (a) the existence of internal economies and diseconomies
of scale, (b) various demand patterns, and (c) changes in techno-
3.11 logy. In every model presented, it is recognized that "balanced
growth" implies the imposition of a social precept that is con-
sistent with a social welfare function. Two such precepts—
Nurke's and Lewis'—are examined and compared. Particular empha-
sis is placed on the analysis of induced and autonomous technolo-
gical change. Each type of technological change involves an
output effect and a factor substitution effect, and the inter-
actions of these two effects have a host of implications with
respect to the maintenance of the precepts of "balanced" growth.
In every model the growth of the factor supplies is exogeneous
to the system; and it is pointed out that constant savings-ratios
or other restrictions on internal capital formation greatly

restrict the capability of an economy to maintain "balanced" growth. Finally it is concluded that "balanced" and "unbalanced" growth models represent complementary approaches to the analysis of orderly development, where "balanced" models are essentially dynamic models that are always in equilibrium and "unbalanced" models are dynamic models that may be in disequilibrium.

Propositions

No propositions; model analysis.

177C Bottomley, Anthony, "Monopoly Profit as a Determinant of Interest Rates in Underdeveloped Rural Areas," Oxford Econ. Papers, 16(3), 1964: 431-437.

1.021 This is the last of a series of articles which the author has written on the components of the rural rate of interest in
3.01 poor countries. These elements are: (1) The pure rate of interest, (2) The administration cost component, (3) The premium for risk,
3.06 (4) Monopoly profit.

It is argued that monopoly profit, or "usury" as it is some-
4.05 times called, is probably not a significant cause of high interest charges in most poor countries; the three cost components mentioned above are likely to be more important in this respect. Nevertheless, any campaign to reduce interest charges to farmers must include some effort to increase competition among moneylenders at the village level. However, it becomes apparent that measures against the monopoly element of interest rates are also those which must be used to reduce the premiums for administration and for risk. In essence this requires that the borrowing farmer be able to build up the value of his collateral, but it is difficult to separate the satisfaction of this demand from policies designed to procure overall rural economic growth.

Propositions

3.15 (1) The probability that modern economic institutions will successfully replace traditional institutions is reduced if
5.111 modern institutions are unable to utilize traditional social conventions which support the traditional institutions.
5.112 (P. 435.)

Evidence: Example of the role of Indian moneylenders who are able to capitalize upon local social pressures in ways that government agencies cannot.

177D Serrs, Dudley, "Normal Growth and Distortions: Some Techniques
of Structural Analysis," *Oxford Econ. Papers*, 16(1), 1964: 78-104.

3.01 This paper defines "normal" growth as a path of development
followed by an "open" economy, i.e., an economy where there are
3.02 low tariffs and few controls on foreign trade or exchange, so that
the structure of consumption is free to respond to increases in
3.05 income. (It is stressed that "normal" growth is not necessarily
desirable; the definition is purely technical.) This conceptual
3.07 tool can be used to find out whether there has been "distortion"
in the past growth of any particular country. One can compare the
relation between changes in income and in the consumption of
various commodities with income elasticities for the same items
calculated from time-series analysis of "open" economies. Where
this is not possible, the yardsticks could be elasticities calculated from cross-section analysis of another country, preferably
not too dissimilar, or from international cross-section analysis.
Sources of such types of coefficients and the problems involved
in their use, are described and assessed. Indirect measures of
distortion in developing economies are shifts in relative prices
and sharp changes in the composition of imports. One object of
the paper is to assist planning offices. The coefficients described above are also needed by those making projections of future
development. A starting point is to estimate how much distortion
there is at the base date. The choice of development plan then
depends very much on whether the government is prepared and able
to cope with the streses which occur on paths of distorted growth.

Propositions

5.13 (1) Actions to promote economic development will create tensions
in a society. How much tension will be endured in order to
7.14 achieve rapid development is a political decision. (P. 101.)
Evidence: Unsubstantiated assertion.
7.23

177E Bottomley, Anthony, "The Cost of Administering Private Loans in
Underdeveloped Rural Areas," *Oxford Econ. Papers*, 15(2), 1963:
154-163.

3.01 Generally speaking the conclusions drawn in this article are
that any reduction in the overall costs of administering loans to
3.02 farmers in poor countries will have to be a consequence of economic
growth rather than its cause. It will be extremely difficult to
3.06 cut administration costs under present conditions in most underdeveloped countries. Partly for this reason, many of the attempts
4.01 to replace the village moneylender with governmentally inspired
banks or cooperative lending instutitions have failed; although

the problems raised by risk have probably also loomed large in their losses. The difficulty seems to be not so much one of replacing the moneylender, but one of creating conditions in which the moneylender can operate more efficiently, without at the same time allowing him to appropriate all the returns on his greater efficiency for himself alone. Thsse conditions must be such as to allow the moneylender: (1) to increase the size and number of the individual loans which he makes; (2) to lengthen their duration; and (3) to lower the administrative costs of obtaining additional reserves.

Propositions

5.04 (1) If a structure to be changed is sustained by the functioning of other structures, it is frequently necessary to alter
5.111 these sustaining structures in order to achieve conditions requisite to changing the first structure. (P. 157.)
5.021 Evidence: Example; in underdeveloped areas the structures of land use limit changes in the roles of moneylenders.

177F Dagnino-Pastore, J.M., "Balanced Growth: An Interpretation," Oxford Econ. Papers, 15(2), 1963: 164-176.

3.01 The purpose of this paper is to clarify the concept of "balanced growth" and to stress its soundness. Consequently, the
3.02 main concern is to provide a definition of "balanced growth" such that (a) it is internally consistent and has empirical relevance,
3.18 and (b) it does not depart significantly from the crucial propositions of the main architects of the doctrine.

In order to comply with these objectives, the first part of the paper surveys the development of the theory, dividing it into three periods. The first phase includes the direct background to and Nurkse's 1952 formal statement of the principle; the second treats contributions, discussions and more rigorous formulations of the doctrine until 1958; finally, the third period reviews new approaches, restatements, and evaluations.

In the second part of the paper, some dispensable restrictive assumptions of the traditional statements of "balanced growth" are discarded in order to arrive at a new interpretation, which complies with the initial objectives. This is done in two steps. First the functions of the main elements of the doctrine are analyzed against the framework of a "general consensus" idea of "balanced growth"; the outcome is a strict concept of the principle of little practical interest. Second, the relations of the theory with: international trade, interventionism, "big push," "growing points" and "unbalanced growth" are studied; this results in a new interpretation of "balanced growth," somewhat less restrictive, but with a wider range of empirical relevance.

Propositions

No propositions.

177G Eltis, W.A., "Investment, Technical Progress, and Economic Growth," Oxford Econ. Papers., 15(1), 1963: 32-53.

3.01 This article is concerned with growth in an economy where
there is always full employment. The argument begins with an
3.02 exposition of the $\frac{S}{C}$ formulation, and it is pointed out that ex-post,
3.03 this formulation is a tautology, while ex-ante, it can only be
3.11 used to make predictions if it is implicitly assumed that there will be sufficient technical progress (or a sufficient backlog of unexploited investment opportunities) to prevent diminishing returns to capital. This is followed by an exposition of Sir Roy Harrod's "natural" rate of growth, and it is pointed out that this requires the assumption that entrepreneurs obtain finance and invest whenever it is profitable for them to do so.

The effect on the "natural" rate of growth of a connection (of the kind assumed by Mr. N. Kaldor) between the share of investment and the rate of technical progress is then worked out. This is followed by an argument that there might be potential economies of scale in imperfectly competitive industries which are not exploited when firms maximize their profits independently, and where simultaneous expansion by most firms (stimulated possibly by planned "target" rates of growth) would consequently be needed to realize the highest (profitable) rate of growth, and this is called the "full natural" rate of growth.

The assumption that investment is always pushed to the limit of profitability is then relaxed. It is argued that inelasticity in the supply of finance, risk, and entrepreneurial inefficiency increase the actual life of capital, and reduce the capital output ratio of new capital. Shortening the life of capital or raising the capital output ratio raises the rate of growth temporarily, so increased availability of finance, etc., would temporarily permit faster growth than the "natural" rate, or the "full natural" rate. The extent to which the rate growth is raised by shortening the life of capital in various conditions is worked out in a Mathematical Appendix.

Propositions

No propositions.

177H Maynard, G., "Inflation and Growth in Latin America: A Note," Oxford Econ. Papers, 15(1), March 1963: 63-65.

1.033 The author discusses the relationship between export prices and agricultural development in the Argentine.

3.15

4.02

4.08

177I Rosenberg, Nathan, "Capital Goods, Technology, and Economic Growth," Oxford Econ. Papers, 15(3), 1963: 217-227.

3.01 ! This paper explores the problem of the lack of symmetry in
the usual treatment of the relationship between an economy's
3.11 factor endowment and technical change. It is a generally accepted
proposition that the scarcity of a particular factor of production
3.12 --labor--was, historically, a major factor accounting for rapid,
labor-saving technical change in the United States and Europe.
3.13 Yet, in economies where another factor of production has been relatively scarce--capital--the result has generally been technical stagnation. Why haven't the underdeveloped countries developed their own capital-saving technology?

This problem is examined by focusing attention on the relationship between capital goods industries and consumer goods industries in the process of economic growth. The analysis centers upon some important and unique characteristics of the capital goods industries. It emphasizes certain conditions which must be fulfilled in order for these industries to achieve high levels of efficiency and in order for them to function as innovators and as carriers of technological change to the rest of the economy. The failure of underdeveloped countries to achieve the kinds of innovations which their factor endowment leads us to expect is explained in terms of the conditions which account for the backwardness of therr capital goods industries.

Propositions

No propositions.

177J Streeten, Paul, "Unbalanced Growth: A Reply," Oxford Econ. Papers, 15(1), 1963: 66-74.

3.01 The main weakness of the doctrine of Unbalanced Growth is that,
for countries embarking on development, unbalance is inevitable.
3.02 No admonition is needed. The crucial question is where to unbalance

3.07 and how much. A second defect is its concentration on stimuli to
expansion and its neglect of resistances caused by unbalanced
3.08 growth. Its merit, on the other hand, is the inclusion of atti-
tudes and institutions among the dependent variables of the model
3.15 and in particular its discussion of linkages. The main weakness
of the doctrine of balanced growth is that the creation of final
3.16 markets is rarely a serious obstacle. They can easily be created
by import restrictions. Its merit is stress of coordination and
the investment package. But investment is not the only component
of policies which should be coordinated.

In the balanced growth versus unbalanced growth controversy, the role of government planning has not been brought out clearly. It is argued that both presuppose (a different kind of) planning, for they are both concerned with lumpiness and complementarities.

Another unclarified issue is that of supply limitations. If balanced growth stresses markets as the limiting factor, unbalanced growth stresses decisions. Both, and particularly unbalanced growth, have been criticized for neglecting the "ceiling." It is argued that the distinction between resources, markets and decisions is misleading and that the relevant lines run across these categories. For some countries the assumption of high supply elasticities of resources if justified.

Propositions

5.04 (1) The probability that change will be successfully resisted is reduced if change is radically imposed. Gradual change allows for the further development of resistance to change. (P. 67.)

Evidence: Unsubstantiated assertion.

177K Balogh, T., "Equity and Efficiency: The Problem of Optimal Investment in a Framework of Underdevelopment," Oxford Econ. Papers, 14(1), 1962: 26-36.

3.01 Optimal investment policy in a framework of underdevelopment
(i.e., in an economy with substantial unemployment and underem-
-3.03 ployment) must be determined by this dominant feature of the
economy. So long as investment is insufficient to provide work at
3.05 levels of remuneration at or above the average level, inequality
is bound to increase as a result of the growth in absolute numbers
3.19 of the miserable primitive sector living at the edge of existence.
Under these circumstances policies which reduce the volume or the
7.231 effectiveness of investment also threaten the achievement of a
tolerable degree of equality. In these conditions, it seems essen-
7.232 tial that (a) as large a share of the increase in national income
should be devoted to investment as politically possible, (b) the

utmost care should be taken that the increase in investment should yield maximum increases in income. Premature welfare measures aiming at "spreading" prosperity at the cost of contravening these principles will merely create new pockets of relative privilege.

The problem of less favored regions should be tackled, and the political pressure eased, in the interim period by efforts to increase rural productivity through new types of agricultural education and public works, rather than by spreading industrial employment at the cost of impairing its efficiency. There is no conflict between efficiency and equality provided the maximum increase in real income is used to increase investment and speed development.

Propositions

3.03 (1) The amount of compulsion required to obtain investment funds
for national development varies inversely with the national
3.05 income of the society. The lower the income, the more
compulsion required to extract funds for investment. (P. 29.)
7.23 Evidence: Unsubstantiated assumption.

3.03 (2) If national economic development is to succeed, it is essential that investment decisions be made on economic rather
7.231 than political grounds. Investment should be made on the
basis of economic criteria to the greatest extent politically
feasible. (Pp. 30 and 35.)
Evidence: The proposition is a logical development from theories of economic growth; no substantiating data are given to support this assertion.

177L Dandekar, V. M., "Economic Theory and Agrarian Reform," Oxford Econ. Papers, 14(1), 1962: 69-80.

3.01 In most non-communist countries where an agrarian reform has
been initiated, it has usually taken the form of a movement aimed
4.01 at creating individual peasant holdings. Recently, Georgescu-
Roegen (Oxford Econ. Papers, 12, 1960: 1-40) tried to supply an
4.14 economic rationale to this policy suggesting that "the intuition
that led the Agrarians to their double negation—not Capitalism,
4.17 not Socialism—proves to have been surprisingly correct." The
present paper examines this conclusion critically in the light of
the theoretical schemata put forward by Georgescu-Roegen and argues
that the individual peasant holdings or even these same organized
in what are loosely called cooperatives do not provide a solution
to the agrarian problem under conditions of over-population and

that the solution has to be found in an organization of the agrarian sector in large units of land and population, feudal in theory, modern in technology, and oriented to a socialistic purpose.

Propositions

3.10 (1) If two structures are composed so that entry to the one is difficult and entry to the other is easy, then in a situaiion of pressure for entry the structure characterized by easy entry will absorb the bulk of the total. Specifically, when commercial industrial and agrarian sectors co-exist, the first tends to be characterized by rational capitalistic values making the numbers of persons absorbed by this sector a function of the marginal productivity of labor. Therefore, in a pressured situation the excess is relegated to the land which absorbs all labor received (even if marginal productivity is zero). (P. 72.)

Evidence: Unsubstantiated generalization.

3.15 (2) If the structures prelevant in a societal sector are changed, then the accompanying change of underlying values tends to
5.121 spawn new changes with further ramifications. (P. 77.)
Evidence: Analysis of the impact of co-operatives,
5.122 i.e., they tend to be managed on the basis of entrepreneurial norms which reveal previously disguised unemployment which results in additional changes because of reallocation of the labor supply.

177M Enke, Stephen, "Economic Development with Unlimited and Limited Supplies of Labor," Oxford Econ. Papers, 14(2), 1962: 159-173.

3.01 This essay discusses the analysis by Professor Authur Lewis (Manchester School, 1954 and 1958) of the process of capital
3.02 accumulation in a backward country, where economic development involves the migration of labor from a sector that does not use
3.03 capital to a "capitalistic" sector that does. Lewis argues there is a first stage, during which this rural labor is in infinitely
3.10 elastic supply, capital and labor being employed in constant proportions in the modern sector; this is followed by a second stage,
4.01 during which wage rates rise.
The present essay reasons that there are three stages: first,
4.03 one of capital widening only, as Lewis describes; second, a capital widening and deepening stage as product per head rises in the sub-
5.10 sistence sector; and third, capital deepening only, the whole economy comprising the capitalistic sector. It is argued that, during this second stage of rising wages, capitalistic sector wages are based on whichever is the higher, after allowing for

special urban living costs, of either labor's marginal product in the modern sector or consumption per head in the traditional sector. The moral of this modified analysis is that "capital" increments should be in modern agriculture as well as industry. Capital should be combined with rural land and labor to some extent, and not be combined only with labor that has migrated to urban industry. In an open economy, by exporting rural goods, the inter-sector terms of trade will worsen less severely against capitalistic agriculture than in a developing closed economy.

Propositions

3.01 (1) Given a fixed number of dollars available to the capitalistic sector for consumption and savings, the amount saved varies
3.03 inversely with the number of capitalists. This is true because the consumption pattern of capitalists is quite inelastic. For an individual capitalist, increasing consumption does not increase satisfaction. (Pp. 168-169.)

Evidence: Extension of theoretical premises, apparently substantiated in reality although the substantive support is not given.

177N MacBean, A.J., "Problems of Stabilization Policy in Underdeveloped Countries, Oxford Econ. Papers, 14(3), 1962: 251-266.

1.022 This paper is mainly concerned with national policies. A prima facie case for stabilization exists if economic instability
3.01 in a particular country can be shown to have seriously damaging effects. But a full case requires that a scheme can be devised
3.04 which reduces these without itself having even more harmful effects on long run economic welfare. The optimum can only be found by
3.16 considering the net benefits and costs of each possible scheme.

The questions which arise are illustrated from a study of
7.231 the effects of fluctuations in the price and export earnings of Pakistan's principal export--jute-and of the production and demand conditions which cause these.

An attempt is then made to systematize the effects of selecting any one of a range of possible policies assuming that the policy is effective in attaining its immediate objective. Finally, on the basis of this analysis and a subjective weighting of the factors involved, the operation of a national buffer stock policy for jute by Pakistan is tentatively chosen as likely to yield the greatest net benefit to the Pakistan economy.

Propositions

No propositions.

1770 Nath, S.K., "The Theory of Balanced Growth," Oxford Econ. Papers, 14(2), 1962: 139-154.

3.01 In this article, after a quick review of the relevant writings
of Rosentein-Rodan, Nurkse, and Lewis, a reformulation of the
3.02 theory of balanced growth is given. It is shown that such a
theory provides us with an economic case for government planning
3.07 and that it is as relevant to the relatively developed countries
as to the underdeveloped countries. It is also pointed out that
7.14 this theory has no logical implication supporting autarky.

In the rest of the article the arguments of the critics of
7.231 balanced growth (such as Fleming, Bauer and Yamey, Hirschman,
Streeten and Kindleberger) are examined, and also the arguments
of Hirschman and Streeten for unbalanced growth. For example, it
is pointed out that Hirschman's strategy of doing nothing about
"shortages" and "obstacles to development" till there are "complaints" about them, can make sense only if these obstacles, once
they are felt, could ever by removed instantaneously. It is also
shown that Streeten's argument for concentrating a given amount
of investment resources during a specified period on the few
industries which enjoy the largest economies of scale--even though
this might lead to a surplus of goods in these industries and
shortages in other sectors--can make sense only if it can be shown
that the increase in welfare (however defined) with such a program
is greater, under all circumstances, than that with a program
which is based on the criteria recommended by the theory of
balanced growth.

Propositions

No propositions.

177P Seers, Dudley, "A Theory of Inflation and Growth in Underdeveloped Economies based on the Experience of Latin America," Oxford Econ. Papers, 14(2), 1962: 174-196.

1.03 The main body of the paper lists a number of assumptions,
believed typical of an underdeveloped economy. It is shown that,
1.04 on these assumptions, the domestic product will tend to grow more
slowly than exports, unless there is vigorous import substitution
3.02 or rising capital inflows. Yet the product will have to grow
more rapidly than the population, if there is to be political
3.07 equilibrium. So, a fortiori, exports will have to rise faster
than the population. On the other hand, if there is a big program
3.09 of import substitution, there will be inflationary pressures..
Alternatively (or additionally), these can rise from lagging out-
3.16 put in basic sectors (e.g., agriculture).

7.231 Latin American experience in the period 1929-1958 is used to illustrate the model. First, the validity of the assumptions is assessed. It is then shown that in 11 countries (mostly the smaller Central American and the Caribbean ones), there was little import substitution, and they escaped rapid inflation, but at the cost of remaining heavily dependent on exports. During recent years, the stagnation in commodity markets has meant dangerously slow economic growth. In the remaining nine countries, the ratio of imports to product has been drastically reduced over these three decades, setting them a severe problem of adjustment. Policy mistakes, especially in the field of prices, have contributed to this group's problems, but it is held that the course of inflation can be largely explained without bringing in government decisions—except perhaps in Argentina (and the special cases of Bolivia and Paraguay).

The concluding section discusses why inflation has been faster in Latin America than in other underdeveloped areas, and suggests that, when analyzing or prescribing policy, it is dangerous to treat Latin American economies like these of the industrial countries. An appendix discusses the sources of "structuralism" and lists the main reference to the worth of this school.

Propositions:

7.12 (1) The probability that a government will be able to successfully respond to the political effects of economic stagnation

7.233 or declining domestic income increases if structures exist to cushion the impact of economic reverses. (P. 185.)

Evidence: Unspecific generalization from the Latin American experience.

3.01 (2) If factor mobility is to be achieved in a traditional economy, then land reform, educational reform, and fiscal reforms are

3.02 required to break down the traditional social structure. (P. 189.)

4.14 Evidence: Unsubstantiated assertion.

4.181

6.14

177Q Balogh, T., " Agricultural and Economic Development," Oxford Econ. Papers, 13(1), February 1961: 27-42.

3.01 The author first states that schemes or theoretical models
of economic development tend to be based on the twin assumptions
3.02 that the productivity of agriculture cannot be increased except
by investment using resources obtained from outside and inversely
3.03 that the pace of industrialization is in some sense dependent on
the extent to which supplies can be extracted from agriculture
4.01 and the agricultural population, helped only by this "outside"
investment. He aims to show that neither of these assumptions is
4.03 correct and that, therefore, a great deal of the theoretical
work which proceeds from them will lead to conclusions which
might be inimical to the most effective mobilization of the potential economic power of under-developed areas outside the Soviet orbit.

178A Gould, Harry G., "The Land Grant College Experiment in Turkey," Overseas Education, 3, May 1956: 26-29.

1.233 The paper traces the history of the land grant experiment in
Turkey. The author comments briefly on the role of American
3.173 universities under contract with the International Cooperation
Administration. He also describes the exchange of Turkish profes-
6.082 sors and students studying at the University of Nebraska.

178B Brewin, D., "Agricultural Education in Africa: The American Approach," Overseas Education, 34(1), 1962: 13-20.

1.01 The author contends that the American system of higher agricultural education has so many advantages that it should be intro-
6.08 duced in the developing countries of Africa. Its main feature is
the triple function of American agricultural educational institutions, viz., research, extension, and education. The discussion of the system which followed at Alemaya College, Ethiopia, is also presented.

179A Taylor, M. C., "South Viet-Nam: Lavish Aid, Limited Progress," Pacific Aff., 34(3), Fall 1961: 242-256.

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Beneath the outward well-being which the visitor to the Republic of Viet-Nam observes, there are serious and pervasive weaknesses in the economy. Much of the country's present level of living represents a shaky prosperity that is based on a large-scale military and consumption-oriented American aid program. Military aid has given Viet-Nam a measure of security against external military aggression, while economic aid has maintained or raised living standards. But a high price has been paid for this. In its economic aspect American aid represents a large-scale relief project rather than a planned economic development, and, because development has not been stressed, termination of American aid would almost certainly produce both political and economic collapse in Viet-Nam.

179B Tinker, H., "Authority and Community in Village India," Pacific Aff., 32(4), December 1959: 354-375.

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The author's purpose is to examine some pre-suppositions about Indian Village society and its role in national development, and to contrast the ideal "village democracy" with the reality of the present-day development program. The assumptions that the present-day village council has a historical antecedent, and that village solidarity exists as a social force are without foundation. Though the Indian villager is uniquely aware of his village as his own place, the village's capacity for leadership and its corporate sense have generally proved inadequate to make the village of today a better place. Village associations are powerful, but mainly negative, and work against corporate action and initiative. The obstacles to the strengthening of community feeling are great. If the nation's elite would set an example of service to the community of simple living and refusal to tolerate cast exclusiveness it might affect village India in time.

179C Klatt, W., "Agricultural Planning in East Pakistan," Pacific Aff., 25(3), September 1952: 263-268.

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The author makes a number of recommendations to increase agricultural yields in East Pakistan.

179D Silverstein, J., and J. Wohn, "University Students and Politics in Burma," Pacific Aff., 37(1), Spring 1964: 50-65.

1.237 The University student in Burma today fits no easy and popular stereotype. He may become militant or remain uninvolved. He still
6.06 commands respect in society and attention in the press. The government's apparent reluctance to suppress his present resurgence stems from the fact that it went too far in 1962 and also that it faces no overt challenge from any major group in the country at the moment. Whether or not the university student chooses to become active in national politics or remains active only in student affairs, depends as much on the political climate as on his evaluation of his present position and the state of society.

179E Zasloff, J. J., "Rural Resettlement in South Vietnam: The Agronville Program," Pacific Aff., 35(4), Winter 1962-1963: 327-340.

1.231 The agronville program -- abandoned in 1961 -- reveals problems of rural settlement in Viet-Nam. These problems are still
7.21 basic today in the construction of strategic hamlets. Ostensibly, the settlement areas were to improve the life of the rural popu-
7.232 lation and also to constitute the economic units which should play an important role in the development of the country as a whole. A further reason for the agronville plan was the strengthening of internal security. The author describes in detail the establishment of one particular agronville and shows the main reasons for the failure of the experiments, which never managed to get the support of the peasants.

179F Milne, R. S., "The Role of Government Corporations in the Philippines," Pacific Aff., 34(3), Fall 1961: 257-270.

1.026 With all their defects and imperfections the Philippine govern-
7.231 ment corporations have carried out a necessary and useful task. Apart from their use for managing enterprises which, for various reasons, the government itself wishes to conduct, they have also established important industries in fields which local entrepreneurs were formerly unwilling to enter. The corporations bridged the gap between the time when the need for certain types of enterprise became apparent, and the time when the supply of Filipino entrepreneurial talent became adequate.

180A Cartano, D.G., and E.M. Rogers, "The Role of the Change Agents in Diffusing New Ideas," Pakistan Acad. Rural Development Journal, 4(2), October 1963: 61-65.

1.022 Anyone who attempts to change things into what he considers
a desirable direction is a "change agent." Change agents may
3.11 include: technical-assistance workers, salesmen and dealers,
techers, etc. The first part of the article deals with the
5.123 adoption by change agents of the new ideas themselves. The second
part deals with what the author calls "strategies for change
agents," or the most effective means by which change agents can
get innovations accepted.

180B Hendry, J., "The Thana Training Center," Pakistan Acad. Rural Development Journal, 4(2), October 1963: 49-60.

1.022 "In this paper, the author describes the concept of the Thana
Training Center as an instrument of rural development as it has
5.08 been developed through experiments at the Pakistan Academy for
Rural Development.
6.08 The Thana Training Center is an integral part of the Comilla
Approach to rural development. It is the training and service
7.03 center for the rural population of the smallest administrative
unit. It is a remarkably flexible design which fits easily into
the existing administrative structure, but incorporates a basic
change in extension method."

Propositions

1.022 (1) If credit is extended to people in developing countries to
put into practice what they have learned in educational pro-
4.05 grams, then the chances of these educational programs succeed-
ing increases. (P. 50.)
6.08 Evidence: Observations of the functioning of the Thana
Training Center.
6.09

180C Kuddus, M.A., "Primary School Project in Comilla Thana," Pakistan Acad. Rural Development Journal 4(2), October 1963: 74-84.

1.022 This is a report on a pilot project on education in Comilla
Thana, Pakistan. New ideas are tested in an attempt to eliminate
5.08 the shortcomings of the old system of education and to bring the
school systems into line with village life at the expense of the
6.04 older, less practical "bookish education."

Propositions

1.022 (1) If the educational system of a developing country is unrelated to village or farming life (e.g., there is little emphasis on
5.08 practical matters), then there is a likelihood that the young educated people will tend to migrate to urban areas,
6.04 or will become liabilities to the village community. (P. 74.) Evidence: Author's description of the situation in
6.08 Pakistan.

181A Khan, Mir Mustufa Ali, "The Impact of American Aid on Pakistan," Pakistan Horizon, 12(4), December 1959: 346-356.

1.022 Aid has affected the economy and the entire sociological atmosphere; what are the reasons for aid, how was it timed, what
3.16 has been the level of aid? What would be the effect of a sudden withdrawal of aid? Aid has been both to resist Communist advance
3.173 and to make business prosper, but also there are humanitarian reasons — a case of enlightened self-interest? Self-sufficiency can only come from encouraging the long-term economic potential of Pakistan, but here progress is slight indeed. Pakistan is short of foreign exchange and needs more for there is little reserve to meet an end of aid. If aid ceased the choice would be between lower consumption and no development; Pakistan clearly needs massive aid in the initial stages of her development.

182A Bokari, J., "Role of Private Enterprise in Development of Agriculture," Pakistan Com. and Indus., 2(7), July 1963: 21-23.

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183A Mohammad, G., "Some Strategic Problems in Agricultural Development in Pakistan," Pakistan Developm. Rev., 4(2), 1964: 223-260.

1.022 The present approach to agricultural development in Pakistan
is largely based on: (1) the provision of increased water supplies
4.06 through large-scale governmental projects, and (2) a "package"
program for the intensive development of various project areas.
4.11 It is maintained that a rapid increase of agricultural productivity
can be achieved by concentrating on an increased availability of
4.12 fertilizers and water. Fertilizers must be made available at a
low price. Cheap, privately owned tube-wells, installed by the
4.16 farmers themselves with government assistance, are likely to prove
very profitable. This strategy does not need radical structural
4.17 reorganization of the government, but implies a greater use of the
private sector: it offers stronger incentives to the farmers to
7.231 improve their income.

183B Ahmad, Nazir, and H. J. Krotki, "Simultaneous Estimation of Population Growth: The Pakistan Experiment," Pakistan Developm. Rev., 3(1), Spring 1963: 37-65.

1.022 There is a feeling among economists and development planners
that population growth is the most critical of all relevant vari-
5.07 ables in underdeveloped countries. Accurate census is therefore
difficult. This deficiency is noticeable also in Pakistan. The
experiment which the author lays down is characterized by the
novelty also stressed by Coale. When a representative sample of
the whole country is taken, the results in accordance with the
plans will be of more than required validity and applicability.
These aims may also be achieved by (1) determining the optimum
period of recovery, (2) determining the validity of the prevailing
practice of young mothers having their children, at least their
first child in their own mothers' houses, (3) determining the
degree of independence of longitudinal registration and cross
sectional survey of parts of the experiment.

183C Fei, J. C. H., and G. Ranis, "Unlimited Supply of Labor and the Concept of Balanced Growth," Pakistan Developm. Rev., 1(3), Winter 1961: 29-58.

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184A Hanna, Paul R., "Education as an Economic and Social Instrument in the Newly Developing Nations," Phi Delta Kappan, (Bloomington, Indiana). 43 (8), May 1962: 354-56.

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This brief article is useful in indicating some past and current research projects at Stanford University relating to education and economic development. Similar studies might be relevant to the research work of national educational planning agencies.

184B Clark, Lois M., "For These Children in This School," Phi Delta Kappan, 36 October 1954: 20-24.

6.04 Good leadership of the small rural elementary school depends upon a clear vision of what is essential to rich, purposeful living and learning; all else should be regarded as incidental or as matter to be adapted to the needs of these children in this school. This issue of this journal was entirely devoted to rural education.

185A Cahill, R. S., and H. J. Friedman, "Criteria for a Proposed Theory of Local Government," Philippine J. Publ. Adm., 8(4), October 1964: 288-302.

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Six criteria for a theory of local government are suggested. The theory should be: (1) a theory of local government, and not of "community politics", or "small government", "city government", etc.; (2) an empirical theory; (3) a dynamic theory, i.e., one which focuses on the explanation of change; (4) a general theory, i.e., one which purports to apply over the entire range of relevant phenomena, unrestricted by time and place; (5) a specifically political theory, i.e., one which focuses on changes in patterns of public authority, public power, and public policy; (6) an ethically significant theory, i.e. a theory whose empirical content is oriented toward questions whose answers have direct implications for the value systems of human beings. Each of these criteria is developed in detail.

185B Abueva, J. V., "The Interrelations Between Local Governments and Community Development," Philippine J. Publ. Adm., 5(1), January 1961: 52-58.

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The interdependence of community development and local government has been discussed on several occasions and the Philippine experience can offer a case study in that respect. In the Philippines, a unitary state where the national government exercises preponderant political power, the local governments are weak and heavily subsidized by the national government, which gives the President and the Congress tremendous power over the whole country. The situation is made even more serious by centralization, a relative lack of community spirit and the underdevelopment of most regions. In such a context, a community development program can have many beneficial effects, help the rural people to raise their aspirations and progressively bring about changes in the local political structure. The establishment of the Philippine Community Development Program in 1956 has made possible the passage of local autonomy laws in 1959 and, since then, the Presidential Assistant on Community Development has been most active in helping the local governments to develop their activities and exercise new powers.

185C University of the Philippines, Institute of Public Administration, "Research Findings on Problems of Local Government," Philippine J. Publ. Adm., 3(1), January 1959: 11-15.

1.026 7.21 Studies so far completed agree that local governments are unable for many reasons to carry out effectively the many duties placed on them by local constituents and the nation. The formal authority conferred by law is incommensurate with duties; local executives have responsibility for administering local affairs, but most officials in charge of local programs are under direct supervision by central agencies. Powers of local legislative bodies are strictly limited, and often approval of national agencies is needed. Many regulations are anachronistic. Financially, locally raised revenues are meager; national allotments are strictly earmarked. Local taxing powers are strictly restricted. Personnel is inadequate, poorly paid, and appointments are subject to rigid central procedures and political "interference". Coordination is poor. Natinnal direction is weak and negative. There is no unanimity about remedies. Legislative and financial reforms have been suggested. Better training for local officers is needed, and strengthening of the merit system through decentralization. Better co-ordinatinn would be possible within the existing framework and national supervision is capable of drastic improvement.

185D University of the Philippines, Institute of Public Administration, "The System of Local Government in the Philippines," Philippine J. Publ. Adm., 3(1), January 1959: 7-10.

1.026 7.21 The Philippines is a unitary state — local subdivisions are subordinate. Local government is characterized by the highly centralized Spanish system. There are fifty-three provinces, each sub-divided into municipalities that are relatively more developed. All chief executives and "legislators" are popularly elected. Judicial officials are appointed and are under the immediate supervision of the Department of Justice. Barrio government is headed by a barrio lieutenant assisted by one or more deputies. These officials are elected for one year by heads of families. A significant innovation is community development councils at provincial and municipal levels. The provincial and municipal council members are representatives of various national departments or agencies in the province or municipality, a few local officials and leaders of civic and other organizations interested in barrio improvement. These councils coordinate the services of various technical departments and carry out development projects through local resources or national grant-in-aid. The program is administered at national level by the Presidential Assistant on Community Development.

186A Fisher, Glen H., "Social and Cultural Change in Economic Development," Philippine Sociol. R., 10(3-4), July-October 1962: 159-164.

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Economic development should be viewed as functionally interrelated to society and culture. Social and cultural characteristics of economic development are given as: (1) demographic characteristics: (a) population mobility especially from rural to urban areas, (b) shift in population composition of a higher proportion of economically productive people, (c) increased life expectancy, (d) smaller families, and (e) increased employment of females outside the home; (2) social structure characteristics: (f) high social mobility in the direction of the middle class especially of peasants with a converse breakdown in traditional two-class society, (g) shift in criteria for upper status and loss of ascribed status of elites, and (h) breakdown of many traditional upper status-lower status relationships; (3) political characteristics: (i) stability of governmental institutions, and (j) highly organized, skilled and generally non-political bureaucracy; (4) educational characteristics: (k) extensive elaboration of educational institutions, (l) high degree of public literacy, and (m) high specialization and variety of educational institutions; (5) family structure characteristics: (n) extended family system loses vitality (o) greater orientation to secondary groups, and (p) increasing of social disorganization and dislocation; (6) organizational characteristics: (q) special and professional interests, and (r) proliferation of organized groups, i.e., clubs, organizations, committees and associations; and (7) sex and age characteristics: (s) higher, more independent status of females, (t) decrease in status of advanced age, and (u) new status positions for adolescents. Changes in beliefs and attitudes are given as: (A) scientifically oriented ways of putting ideas and concepts together, and facility in abstract thinking; (B) high valuation of achievement and knowledge; (C) optimistic outlook; (D) willingness to delay immediate for future gratifications and significant satisfaction from anticipation of the future; (E) concepts of public good and public welfare; (F) attitudes and values conductive to cooperative efforts; and (G) appetites for goods and services which motivate productive effort. It is concluded that economic development involves many social and psychological factors which must be considered when, and sometimes even before, economic development occurs.

186B Bonifacio, Manuel Flores, "Small Group Process and Social Change," Philippine Sociol. R., 9(1-2), January-April 1961: 20-30.

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The use of a formally structured small group to effect structured (there is planning arising out of a felt need) social change (variations or modifications in any aspect of social process, patterns or forms) is the best possible way. This is because research has shown that a unified small group is the most effective force in effecting a change resulting in the achievement of a social goal; social changes involves innovation (something qualitatively different from the existing form), and this is something the small group carries with it when it goes into the community. For the Philippines specifically, three kinds of small groups may be used as innovators in the community. (1) The P.A.C.D. Community Development Team, representing a cross-section of professionals, who can discover and find solutinns to community problems. (2) The barrio council (or rural welfare councils or rabus) can frame their own decisions, guided of course by the government teams, and then organize other small groups in the community such as the, (3) purok (a neighborhood organization of 10-40 families) to actually carry out the change. These small groups will offset the tendency for innovations aganst traditions to be resisted. By the use of small groups, there is a reduction of group conflict and a development of a socially-oriented team with the omission of overlapping services.

186C Fox, Robert B., "The Study of Filipino Society and Its Significance to Programs of Economic and Social Development," Philippine Sociol. R., 7(1-2), January-April 1959: 2-11.

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The relationships between basic institutional characteristics of Filipino culture and society, especially the bilateral family, and the social problems encuntered in initiating economic and cultural change are explored. The extreme stability and security rendering function of the family is seen as a possible block to progress toward effective legal self-government on the rural level, and the development of civic responsibility for economic and social development in which the person becomes fully aware of his responsibilities to the community and nation.

186D Madigan, Francis C., "Some Filipino Population Characteristics and Their Relation to Economic Development," Philippine Sociol. R., 7 (1-2), January-April 1959: 16-26.

1.026 3.01 5.07 An analytical study shows a relationship between the Filipino culture orientation and programs for industrial expansion. The physical conditions and degree of training of workers in the Philippines presents problems since they are low. The Philippines has an increasing population which will probably be good for the economy in time to come. Urban growth has added problems such as slums and has raised a need for better planning for housing and other needs of the population. A high birth rate and a lowering death rate has caused an increase in the number of children and dependents.

186E Ferrer, Cornelio M., "The Cooperative Movement in the Philippines," Philippine Sociol. R., 4(1), January 1956: 33-36.

1.026 4.17 Steps taken by the Philippine government in the formation of cooperatives are reviewed in this article. Types of cooperatives are enumerated and described: (1) consumers, (2) farmers, (3) credit, (4) industrial, and (5) service. The credit union is probably the most popular and easy to organize in the Philippines. This type of cooperative is urgently needed to combat the usurious practices of the money lenders in the rural communities. Banking institutions are practically limited to large cities and credit facilities are made available only to those with sound securities. More legislation prescribing penalties for usurers will be limited in effect, since the needs for credit facilities have not been met by legal financial institutions. "A cooperative credit society is an association of persons on an equal footing to obtain funds which will be lent to the members for useful purposes." Those unions which have failed are characterized by too loose bonds of association and too wide an area of coverage. More generally, the failure of all types of cooperatives results from an inability on the part of interested groups to avail themselves of indigenous institutions linked to the systems. "Cooperatives would have more of a dynamic appeal if they were oriented around the traditional rural family system."

186F Ferrer, Cornelio M., "Landlordism, A World Issue," Philippine Sociol. R., 2(2), July 1954: 37-41.

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A descriptive qualitative study of the Hacienda Esperanza in Sta. Maria, Pangasinan, serves as a basis for suggestions regarding democratic land reform in the Philippines. Drastic but democratic land reform is necessary in the Philippines if healthy democracy is to exist. The effects of landlessness is a universal social problem. A concentration of landholding among a privileged few leads to tenancy and landlordism as a natural outcome. Politically, landlordism, in the Philippines, is strong, well-organized, and powerful, while the landless peasants are voiceless and leaderless. Associated with the landlordism is usury, lending to perpetual indebtedness of the tenants.

187A Ables, H. A., G. T. Castillo, and G. F. Saguiguit, "Scholastic Performance of Freshmen in the University of the Philippines, College of Agriculture During the Academic Year 1960-1961," Philippine Agr., 46(4), September 1962: 198-214.

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This study was designed to predict which possible entering freshmen at the University of the Philippines College of Agriculture would pass or fail in their first year. Comparisons of students by sex and region are made, as well as their high school rankings.

188A Phillips, William M., Jr., "Urbanization and Social Change in Pakistan," Phylon, 25(1), Spring 1964: 33-43.

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Changes in the degree of urbanization of Pakistan are described between 1951 and 1961 for the nation, the two provinces, major divisions, and urban places. The urbanization process is conceptualized as: (1) the number of points of population concentration, and (2) size of the places of population concentration. Differential patterns of variation in these two aspects of urbanization are considered, and selected demographic characteristics associated with observed variation are noted. Most data are obtained from the Pakistan Census and are quantitatively analyzed. Pakistan experienced sharply increased urbanization and redistribution during the 10-year period; this finding suggests the possibility of "too rapid urbanization" with attendant problems as serious as those of "too rapid population growth."

188B Smythe, Hugh H., "Nigeria's Marginal Men," Phylon, 19(3), Fall 1958: 268-276.

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The state of Nigeria is undergoing rapid change; urbanization, improving communications, an increase in political activity prior to independence. Many young men have been going abroad, primarily to Britain and the United States to prepare themselves to gain professional elite status. They have been affected by Western social structures, taken on some of the personality patterns, and developed a western outlook, while losing their perspective on changes occurring at home. On returning to a situation much different from what they had experienced abroad, they became "marginal men." The first reason for their marginality has been their inability to make use of the skills they have acquired. The civil service system restricts employment of Nigerians, and despite their training they are qualified for jobs only on a junior level. Those trained in British institutions are often favored. The political leaders whom the young men feel should help correct these inequities are divided and concentrate on the acquisition of personal power. Revolutionaries have become bureaucrats. Regional governments create agencies to dispense political patronage. These marginal men feel that they cannot ignore their traditional responsibilities and heritage, yet wish to progress toward the Western ways they have experienced. The new values of position, power, and wealth which have replaced the old emphasis on use of the land, respect for elders, and fealty to the chief, cannot be consonant with the development of a nation which can realize the full potential of its resources. Accustomed to a society with numerous opportunities for leisure activities, thev face a "social

blankness": no theaters, no organized musical groups, no intellectual societies, no libraries, few mass media. They are literate men in a nonliterate atmosphere. Some of these men have added to their marginality by marrying foreign women, especially those who have married white women. The men cannot provide the high standard of living which their wives were accustomed to in the Western world and a foreign wife can never be brought into the psychological complex of kinship structure and traditions. Some of these marginal men see no solution in the near future by the sense of responsibility which prompted them to go abroad in the beginning and they remain "aliens at home."

189A Hanson, A. H., "The Crisis of Indian Planning," Polit. Quart., 34(4), October-December 1963: 366-379.

1.021 India's Third Five-Year Plan is undergoing the most serious of the many crises that have punctuated the planning process since
3.07 1956, when the "overfulfilment" of the First Plan raised so many false hopes. These difficulties cannot be attributed wholly to
7.14 the Chinese aggression; a series of bottlenecks in power, coal, and transport, can be traced to under-investment, which was the
7.231 result both of planning miscalculations and foreign exchange shortages. It is of the utmost importance for India that either the plan be rescued, or, that the plan be fundamentally changed. This article seeks to ascertain how far the crisis in Indian planning is due to defects in the planning process itself. For example, does the Planning Commission possess the requisite knowledge, status, and organization, to complement its able staff? It has not made adequate use of sociologists, and it has tended to isolate itself from "field experience"; the techniques of planning tend to be mixed up far too early with the politics of planning; important decisions have been imposed upon it from outside, and there are problems of locating influence and responsibility. It would seem that procedures are intelligently devised and that there is adequate organization; where, then, is the cause of the crises? It is probably in the lack of respect that Indian planners have given to the "objective situation"; having given themselves the fullest benefit of every doubt, they introduce unrealistic suppositions which ignore too many "ifs". It may be that in default of massive foreign assistance, no solution is possible.

190A Somjee, A. H., "Forms and Levels of Political Activity in Indian Villages," Polit. Stud., 11(1), February 1963: 1-10.

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Political activity in India, particularly in rural areas, is integrally connected with her social and economic life in general. It is therefore incapable of being examined in isolation. Not the political parties but the local men of influence pursue politics in Indian villages and local considerations outweigh in importance all other considerations. An attempt has been made, in this paper to illustrate circumstances, situations, positions, etc., which reveal their political significance in the face of certain situations; subtle and unfamiliar forms through which political activity expresses itself and the three levels, namely, local, regional and national, at which the rural political activity persists calling into play distinct techniques and different types of participants.

190B Austin, D., and W. Tordoff, "Voting in an African Town," Polit. Stud., 8(2), June 1960: 130-146.

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Studies on nationalist movements in Africa have given some account of election politics, and we start to know how the voter casts his ballot, but not why. In Ghana, even in the strongest area of opposition, the Ashanti heartland, the Convention People's Party has been given a substantial vote. What is the basis of this division between voters? Has it changed since independence, in March 1957? The present account tries to answer these questions in respect to the municipality of Kumasi. The CPP, which had swept the 1950 elections in a wave of nationalist emotion, had to face, since 1954, the opposition of the National Liberation Movement, a mass popular movement owingsits success to a mixed appeal to discontented farmers, traditional chief-loyalties, Ashanti craft workers (as against wealthy Ashanti), poor Muslim and northern immigrant wards. Since 1958, the National Liberation Movement merged with other opposition parties and became the United Party, but has merged with other opposition parties and became the United Party, but has in fact lost votes. A ward-to-ward vote seems to show that though local communities tend to vote as a bloc when away from their home area, or when set apart like the Muslims, Kumasi is a long way from communal voting. The CPP has succeeded there as elsewhere precisely because it emphasizes its national, non-tribal character.

191A Chettiar, Shri A. M. M. Murugappa, "Population-Pressures and Consumption Explosion," Popul. R., 7(2), July 1963: 19-23.

5.07 The four broad patterns of consumption have been classified by M. J. Fourastie as a predominance of (1) millets; (2) cereals; (3) miscellaneous foods; (4) non-alimentary goods. In the United States, consumer wants have multiplied with the growth of economic strength. However, the poorer African and Asian countries contain 65% of the world's population. Because a country with a low per capita income has inadequate means of accumulating capital, and usually has the greatest resistance to change, the advanced nations must give them technical aid, which would bring success to family planning efforts, since it would emphasize consumption rather than population increase as a means of raising productive power.

191B Ginzberg, Eli, "The Manpower Factor in Economic Development: East and West," Popul. R., 7(2), July 1963: 65-67.

3.10 The conventional reasons for the United States economy's great success are not sufficient to account for economic growth in the
5.07 Far East. Factors which seem to be controlling economic growth are: (1) widespread educational attainment; (b) a flourishing science and research climate and program; (3) a democratic and equalitarian political economic arena; and (4) a pragmatic materialism.

191C Ginzberg, Eli, "Manpower Policy for Underdeveloped Countries," Popul. R., 7(1), 1963: 33-38.

3.10 Manpower policy relates to the kinds of investments, direct and indirect, that should be made to insure that skills required for
5.07 economic development are available, i.e., education. Besides formal schools, the military offers opportunities, as does industry. Where formal schools are established, the educational dollar should be stretched. Self-education and training should be encouraged. The rural sector must not be ignored. Literacy should be required for every type of preferred job in the government and military. Radios could be used for large-scale education in remote villages. Economic incentives should be offered to educated persons to go into rural areas. Unless political leadership has the power and desire to force change, incentives must be relied upon.

191D Rizk, Hanna, "Population Growth and Its Effect on Economic and Social Goals in the United Arab Republic," Popul. R., 7(1), 1963: 51-56.

1.133 5.07 A study supervised in the United Arab Republic by the Permanent Council for Public Services of 6,067 females "ever married" from selected urban, semi-urban and rural areas showed: (1) among the university-secondary school educated group, 39% of the females over 45 and 51% under 45 practiced birth control; (2) among the primary elementary school educated, 19% and 23% practiced control respectively; and (3) among illiterates 9% of both groups practiced control. In rural areas only 3% of the literate and 1% of the illiterate population practiced control. The effect of the population growth is seen in actual increase in the number of rural inhabitants, the addition to the labor force of a number 27 times as great as the average absorbed anually by industry, and the requirement of investments in service programs, i.e., education. The per capita income is still the same as it was in 1945, though the total national income has increased.

191E Chandrasekhar, Sripati, "Population Problems in a Developing Economy," Popul. R., 6(2), July 1962: 122-130.

1.021 This is a discussion of population problems in India as a classical example of the "Malthusian dilemma". The factors responsible for the population increase are high birth rate and declining death rate. The high birth rate is precipitated by early marriage; the high reproduction of the population; the rise in marriage of widows; and the absence of effective family planning. The question of the proper size of the Indian population is examined with reference to the present standard of living in India. "Demographically (India is) running so fast that economically, despite changes and progress, we are standing still." The policy must implement control and reduction of the growth of the population. A family planning method acceptable to the people must be discovered.

191F Davis, Kingsley, "The Role of Class Mobility in Economic Development," Popul. R., 6(2), July 1962: 67-73.

5.10 5.062 This is a discussion of the role of vertical mobility in the process of economic development. Vertical mobility is functionally necessary to economic modernization, because: (1) industrialization necessitates a more complex division of labor; (2) mobility engendered by both a greater division if labor and an increase in the number of "prestige occupations" makes possible the selection of personnel on the basis of ability and talent; (3) the possibility of mobility by virtue of personal excellence rather than ascriptive status stimulates hard work; (4) mobility opportunities create greater willingness to make long-range plans with respect to the work situation; (5) knowledge that mobility is possible and that hard work brings rewards to the individual quickens the rate of both technological and managerial change; (6) striving toward mobility increases the number and types of human wants; (7) vertical mobility functions to "dissolve" the old social structure; (8) it increases geographic mobility; (9) the desire for personal advancement induces the limitation of the number of offspring; and (10) "if people have genuine and growing opportunities to get ahead in this world, they become less dependent on the next one." Whether mobility is instituted by either peaceful political process or revolution, a large amount of class mobility is necessary if a nation is to achieve the "urban-industrial transition". An immobility social stratification system is unlikely to survive in the modern world.

191G Chandrasekhar, Sripati, "Population Growth and Economic Development in India: 1951-1961," Popul. R., 5(2), July 1961: 58-73.

1.021 This is a summary of the provisional results of India's 10th
decennial census, (1961), indicating that India's population rate
of growth during the decade 1951-1961 is in excess of the most
5.02 liberal estimates of various planning and statistical agencies of
the government of India. The literacy rate has increased, less
5.07 among females. Though the country is gradually becoming industrialized, the rate of urbanization has been very slow. The sex ratio
has deteriorated so that for every 1,000 males there are 940 females
in 1961 as compared to 946 in 1951. "...It must be concluded that
if the ratio of females to males had not gone down as it has, the
population growth would have been ever greater than it has been."
A more detailed analysis of the census returns and reliable birth
and death rates for the period are required. "An upward trend is
visible in practically every sector of the economy.... The economy
of shortages is being gradually transformed into an economy of near
self-sufficiency, although it is still a long way from affluence
even according to Indian standards."

191H Siesinger, R. E., "Cultural Factors in Economic Development," Popul. R., 4(1), January 1960: 23-26.

3.01 "A nation that embarks upon the ladder of economic development
starts with some sort of cultural pattern. Since most of the
5.12 material gains of development require capital formation, this
becomes a key problem. Beginning with a high propensity to consume,
it is unlikely that much capital formation is possible from internal

sources. Thus, external influences become felt as capital is imported." It is at this point that clashes with the cultural pattern of the developing area occur. It is far better to have a slower rate of development, however, and to use the native cultural environment with its given state of economic institutes to the fullest than to try re-work the results of years of primary and secondary cultural diffusion. A sound approach to economic development would be to take what a nation has as a start and then to try to engineer a program of development within the framework of the existing socio-economic milieu. In this manner clashes between the developing country and external areas will be reduced and contributions toward world peace will be offered as developing nations then become less the pawns of the more powerful maturer countries."

1911 Myrdal, Gunnar, "Indian Economic Planning, Popul. R., 3(1), January 1959: 17-32.

1.021 Responsibilities of the state in economic planning are greater in underdeveloped countries today than in European countries in the

5.07 past, because conditions for economic development are less unfavorable. Income is lower, population size and pressure greater, and population is more dynamic because of medical science. A flexible "rolling planning" is needed: (1) a plan and budget for the following year for public and private sectors, (2) a plan five years in advance, deleting the previous year and adding a new one, and (3) a perspective plan for 20 years. Indian economic planning is narrowly nationalistic. Reginal economic cooperation is not yet practical politically; there is little trade with neighboring countries. This results from poor transportation, the legacy of colonialism, economic underdevelopment, and cold-war complications. Regional cooperation will become important and politically possible in the future as industrialization proceeds. Agricultural productivity must be raised. First priority is raising labor productivity. The important factor here is not capital in the classical sense, but human capital in the form of skills. India's main development problems are: (1) how to liquidate unemployment and underemployment, and (2) how to raise labor efficiency. Young men and women should be required to put in two years' public service under army supervision. The educatee employed should "work as teachers in the camps for public service" and be sent "to the villages to intensify the much needed literacy drive among the peasants." Another aspect of the labor picture is to reduce the supply. "As long as industrialization cannot absorb any substantial part of the population increase in rural areas...the population increase is an eroding force in every village, increasing pressure on land, causing further fragmentation of the farms, increasing the percentage of the landless." Despite problems, India has two advantages relative to the West in the past with respect to birth control: (a) it has broad backing by the government and enlightened citizens, and (b) contraceptive technology has been improved.

191J Chandrasekhar, S., "Cultural Barriers to Family Planning in Under-Developed Countries," Popul. R., 1(2), 1957: 44-51.

5.07 It is contended that "it is the poor and underpriviledged with large families who desperately need assistance in family planning,
5.112 but who are denied access to it because of poverty and ignorance and cultural inhibitions". It is asserted that the term "under-developed country" is in certain respects a misnomer, for these countries are in many respects "overdeveloped". The area of one population is one example, and the misuse of natural resources another. Several criteria for defining underdeveloped areas are suggested, among them: income per head of population, food intake, gainfully employed, or recipients of the United States' Point Four aid. In order to disseminate birth control information, the population must be literate; this in turn indicates a relatively high aspiration level, which in many areas is not the case. The filtering down of sterilization as a birth control method from the upper classes to the lower classes in Puerto Rico is used as an example of cultural communication. The extended family is seen as a "cultural barrier to birth control." Religious attitudes, not only toward birth control, but also toward the political and economic institutes, will play a part in determingng the economic size. This is due to the desire of most major religions to be in the numerical major majority. "A population policy is primarily an economic policy of balancing a nation's resources with the people's needs. Family planning implies a planned family in a more or less planned economy.

191K Keyfitz, Nathan, "The Growth of Village Population and Economic Development in South Asia," Popul. R., 1(2), July 1957: 39-43.

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191L Masters, Allene, "The Chettiars in Burma -- An Economic Survey of a Migrant Community," Popul. R., 1(1), January 1957: 22-31.

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Chettiar is a term referring to Indian moneylenders of the Chetty caste, which originated in South India. They have migrated throughout Southeast Asia, which has brought them to Burma. The Chettiars represent a group of people who have a history of traditionally lending money on the basis of liquid capital. They are characterized by honesty in their business dealings. Upon entering Burma, they retained their ties with India, and remained apart from the Burmese community socially. The men served for 3-year periods, leaving their wives behind, and returned to India for vacations following their 3-year periods of service. Monies collected were pooled to provide ready capital. However, when the depression of the 1930's occurred, the Chettiars were forced to foreclose on land loans, which put them in the position of possessing "about (25%) of the best rice-growing area in Lower Burma" by 1938. "Finally, over 55% of municipal taxation came to be paid by Indians, so that more than (50%) of the real property in Rangoon was owned by them." However, the Land Nationalization Act of the Burmese Government, passed in 1948, disallowed the possession of land by non-cultivating owners. Thus, the Chettiars lost their land holdings as nationalization was accepted by all. Consequently the Chettiars have largely withdrawn from Burma, and their future role there is questionable.

191M Singhania, Padampat, "Population Growth and Indian Economy," Popul. R., 1(2), July 1957: 17-20.

1.021 In "a projected perspective" it is suggested for the successful implementation of the 5 Year Plans it will be necessary to keep the Indian population from outstripping the increases in the per capita GNP, and the standard of living. A table of projected population growth from 1950 to 1976, including the per capita income for these years, indicates that 26 countries today have a better per capita income standard than India will have in 1975. An international comparison is given for National Income and per capita Income, and a perspective of world population growth is presented. Also charted is a comparison of the occupational distribution of the labor force of 5 selected countries. "Indiscriminant increase in population and the division of the national pool by that population will not only result in considerable waste of productive resources but also sap further incentives to further production through efficiency and improved consumption standards."

192A Chacel, J. M., "Land Reform in Brazil: Some Political and Economic Implications," Proceedings of the Acad. Pol. Sci., 27(4), May 1964: 56-77.

1.032 The drive for a profound structural and institutional change
in the agricultural section has no deep root in the Brazilian past.
4.14 An attempt to identify the causes which abruptly called for a
substantial structural change in Brazil's agricultural section may
7.11 reside in the idea of creative imbalances, since they bring about a decision. These imbalances may be considered to have an institutional, social, and economic return. Among those groups which are simultaneously demanding some form of agro-social change, the conflict which emerges most frequently is betwenn the demand for greater social equality and the need for increasing efficiency in agriculture, since the kind of society one would ideally like to live in does not necessarily have the type of economy that will feed people best. In its traditional sense, land or agrarian reform can only be an adequate solution for structural malfunctions in which an excess of labor relative to the systems and techniques prevailing in land utilization is detected (disguised unemployment). In Brazil, however, one can most frequently detect within a falling output per head resulting from declining productivity of labor or a failing output per hectare which derives from failure to maintain soil fertility. Since a traditional land reform would not remedy the decline in output due both to decreasing labor and land productivity, it follows that the kind of reform Brazil needs should not only contemplate redistribution of property in land, but also incorporate in that process of economic and social change a high content of agricultural policies translated into measures such as education, new methods of land taxation, cooperative organization, and improvement of farm credits.

Propositions

1.032 (1) If political demonstrations are employed as political tools,
then they will "play a more intensive role" in urban areas
7.12 than in rural areas. (P. 58.)
Evidence: Assertion.

1.032 (2) If production units are geographically dispersed rather than
clustered, then working legislation will be more difficult to
4.14 enforce. (P. 58.)
Evidence: Non-specific, non-quantitative comparison of
7.04 urban and rural sectors.

1.032 (3) If in determingng economic policy a society emphasizes greater
social equality, then the economy may not be the most efficient
7.232 in production. (P. 60.)

7.232 in production. (P. 60.)
Evidence: Statement of logical truism.

1.032 (4) If (and only if) these prevails an excess of labor relative
to the systems and techniques prevailing in land utilization,
4.09 then (and only then) is agrarian reform an "adequate" solution for structural malformations. (P. 64.)
4.14 Evidence: Unsubstantiated.

1.032 (5) If agrarian reform takes into consideration regional differences (e.g., climate, type of soil, etc.), then it is more
4.12 likely to be successful on a national scale.
Evidence: None.
4.14

193A Brown, D. S., "The Key to Self Help: Improving the Administrative Capabilities of the Aid-Receiving Countries," Publ. Adm. R., 24(2), June 1964: 67-77.

3.17 A country's ability to undertake successful self-development in either the technical, economic or military areas depends in large part upon the ability of its governmental administrative machinery to sustain these program.. For this reason the improvement of its administrative capability must be given the highest order of priority in any kind of technical assistance planning. This article describes in some detail why public administration technical assistance is so important — and also why so many problems attend it. Particular attention is given to the American technical assistance programs, but some of the same observations might be made of United Nations and foundation-supported efforts. The author suggests a five-point course of action. Of major importance is the research and study of the nature and processes of administrative change. The paper urges also the integration of public administration with other technical assistance activities (agriculture, education, public works, etc.), arguing that the best results come from related efforts.

194A Hanson, A. H., "Nile and Niger: Two Agricultural Projects," Publ. Adm., 38(4), Winter 1960: 339-352.

1.01 Mr. Arthur Gaitskell's book on the Gezira scheme in the
former Anglo-Egyptian Sudan invites comparison of this project
4.16 with that of the "Office du Niger" on the other side of Africa in
the former French Soudan. Gezira began before the first World War
when there was no question of public subsidy and no political
agitation for self-government. The aim was strictly commercial,
and management until 1950 was in the hands of a Syndicate with
obligations to shareholders: the latter advanced their money in
1904, got no dividends until 1912, no reasonable return until the
1920's, but £8½ million between 1925-1950 or an average of 15%;
the Government got E £26 million and the tenants nearly £E26
million. Neither scheme really achieved effective participation
of the tenants in control, though the Office du Niger began with
an elaborate hierarchy of associations. The Niger scheme has
suffered from accounting obscurity, detailed control from Paris,
numerous public services to provide, and a terrain more remote and
less flat: it has run at a loss throughout and has never reached
the intended scale of operations.

195A Bogart, Leo, "Changing Markets and Media in Latin America," Pub. Opin. Quart., 23(2), Summer 1959: 159-167.

1.03 3.08 5.15 Any foreign enterprise entering a country with a limited or antiquated economy becomes a force working toward social change. The marketer finds himself involved in unanticipated political problems. Latin America marketing practice has recently undergone substantial changes. The market is sometimes defined so as to exclude the marginal rural or urban shanty-town element of the population, even though these persons do represent significant purchasing power. Consumer and audience surveys are therefore often confined to a limited segment of the population. The ratio of research costs to total marketing costs tends to be proportionately higher in the smaller markets. The mass media in Latin America are characterized by extraordinary proliferation and competition in relation to the size of the audience. Though the use of a common language has encouraged the growth of international media, there are numerous economic and political obstacles to their development.

195B Brown, Stephen C., "Economic Aid: An Inventory of Problems for Attitude Research," Pub. Opin. Quart., 22(3), Fall 1958: 416-420.

3.01 3.15 External capital requirements under United States economic assistance programs depend on: (1) the size of the development program, (2) internal resources, and (3) the ability of the country to mobilize domestic resources for investment. Some of the problems concerning this mobilization are: What are social determinants of investment preferences? What values can change attitudes to one favoring investment contributing to economic development? What are the bases of requirements for the establishment of confidence between investors and managers? What is the extent to which personal status and relationship serve as criteria for employment eligibility rather than impersonal standards of performance? What are avenues for rising, especially where individuals are modernizing more rapidly than institutions? Why do indigenous or alien minorities often provide the entrepreneurs in less developed countries? What is the role of educatinn in the system of values? Do income and power distributions coincide, overlap, or differ? These power distributions locate the availability of resources and the decision-making function, and the economic assistance program may alter these distributions. What effects of the economic development program can be used to remold values hampering economic change and to reshape the institutional framework to promote further sustained development: the creation of incentives and conditions for self-sustained development? Answers to these questions are needed by government officials in planning. A wide range of comparative studies might prove of more general applicability and shed light on the nature of social and economic change.

196A "Report on the Study of Working of Village Panchayats in Community Development Areas of Maharashtra State. Maharashtra Bureau of Economics and Statistics," Qtrly. Bull. Econ. and Statistics, 1(3), October-December 1960: 1-30.

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196B Bose, S. R., "Urban-Rural Economy of Bihar. Bihar, Central Bureau of Economics and Statistics," Qtrly. Bull. Econ. and Statistics, 1955: 1-8.

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197A Gutman, G. O., "Agricultural Surpluses and Economic Development," Quart. Rev. Agr. Econ., 13(1), January 1960: 1-7.

3.01 This article examines opportunities for using surpluses for economic development of underdeveloped countries and problems that

4.01 arise. It concludes that it is doubtful whether surplus disposals make effective contribution to the problem of overproduction in developed countries and that the need for additional resources to promote economic development is best satisfied by placing resources of a more varied kind at the disposal of underdeveloped countries. There's some danger of recipient countries shaping development programs to utilize larger quantities of surplus products. This means concentration of labor intensive projects which are not necessarily the most urgently needed.

198A Fei, John C.H., "Per Capita Consumption aad Growth," Qtrly. J. of Econ., 79(1), 1965: 52-72.

3.01 It is the purpose of this paper to investigate a growth model of the contemporary variety. This model is based on the familiar assumptions of (1) the neo-classical production function $Q=f(K,L)$

3.02 (2) a constant population growth rate as well as the savings behavior assumption which states that a constant per capita consumption standard ($\overline{w}$) is maintained at all times (i.e., $S=Q-\overline{w}L$). Accordingly, the model is called the CPCS (constant per capita consumption standard) growth model. The dynamics (i.e., the rules of growth) of this model will be demonstrated; the results will be used to examine a number of ideas in contemporary growth theory with the aid of diagrammatic methods.

The CPCS model will be used first to examine the notion of development (of an underdeveloped economy) under the condition of an "unlimited supply of labor" (i.e., "constancy of real wage"). We shall rigorously deduce a "stages-of-growth" thesis which states that successful development in a labor-surplus economy will sooner or later arrive at a turning point where the "unlimitedness" of the supply of labor comes to an end.

The CPCS model will next be modified to examine the impact on the growth path due to an upward revision of the per capita consumption standard ($\overline{w}$). Through such analysis, we can reformulate (and expand) the idea of "golden rule of capital accumulation" which asserts that in the absence of technological change there is a maximum comsumption standard (MCS) which can be sustained in the long run.

The CPCS growth model is next compared with the familiar growth model of Professor Solow which is based on the constancy of the average propensity to save. Through such a comparison, the dynamic efficiency of these models is investigated. The paper concludes by an examination of the significance of the "shadow prices" (i.e., competitive factor prices) which conceivably may guide the economy aiming at growth toward the MCS in the long run.

198B Watson, Andrew M., and Joel B. Dirlam, "The Impact of Underdevelopment on Economic Planning," Qtrly J. of Econ., 79(2), 1965:

3.01 This paper argues that certain fundamental handicaps have been insufficiently considered in setting the goals of, and esta-

3.02 blishing the institutions for, economic planning in developing countries. If these handicaps are identified, the orientation of

3007 planning may be altered so as to make developmental efforts more effective.

7.03 In an exercise in "synthetic history," the authors show how underdeveloped nations become dissatisfied with non-planning, how

7.14 the first attempts at planning are made, and why they fail. Almost inevitably, governments which have begun to plan economic development are pushed—by political and other pressures—towards more elaborate types of planning, and the planning organization may spread itself still further by assuming responsibility for the operation of certain key projects. But in almost all their activities, planners in underdeveloped countries encounter certain obstacles which to a large extent defeat their efforts. The legacy of past projects already initiated, institutions already established, and personnel already employed is difficult to reject. Political interference may also make proper planning difficult, especially where administrative arrangements are defective. But most important of all are certain shortages which, in almost every underdeveloped nation, partly frustrate efforts to accelerate growth. These are not the frequently mentioned shortages of capital, foreign exchange, and natural resources. They are, rather, the lack of various kinds of information which planners need, the lack of suitable projects worked out in sufficient detail for inclusion in a plan, and the lack of qualified and properly motivated personnel. It is most often these lacks, the authors maintain, which are operative constraints on development and set the limit to the "absorptive capacity" of the underdeveloped nation.

A greater part of developmental efforts, it is concluded, should be directed towards removing, or at least weakening, these constraints. But where constraints cannot be removed they must be lived with, and planners should tailor their plans accordingly. Broadly speaking, this means scaling down the development program for the public sector so that efforts are concentrated on projects which collectively are both strategic and within the realm of the possible. To make planners aware of the need for such changes in orientation, much more sharing of experience is needed, particularly of unsuccessful experience.

198C Amano, Akihiro, "Biased Technical Progress and a Neo-Classical Theory of Economic Growth," Qtrly. J. of Econ., 78(1), 1964: 129-138.

3.01 In the framework of a neoclassical, one-sector growth model, the author investigates the connection between the properties of
3.02 an equilibrium growth path and the nature of technical improvements. Mathematical techniques employed are not more than simple
3.03 calculus.

The following conclusions are drawn from this study. First,
3.11 in order that a neoclassical growth processs have an equilibrium growth path with positive factor rewards, either one of the following conditions must hold: (a) neutral technological progress

3.12 (in Hicks' sense) associated with a unitary elasticity of substi-
tution between labor and capital; (b) labor-saving technological
3.13 progress with the elasticity of substitution less than one; or
(c) capital-saving technological progress with the elasticity of
substitution greater than one. Second, if it is assumed that
the elasticity of substitution is constant and that the effects of
technological progress upon the growth rates of marginal produc-
tivities of factors are exogeneously given, then only cases (a) a
and (b) have a stable growth equilibrium. Finally, if the biased
nature of technological progress is affected by the long-run
movement of the relative factor prices in such a way that entre-
preneurs attempt to economize the use of a factor which has be-
come relatively expensive, then technological progress must be
labor-saving in equilibrium. This rules out, therefore, the
possibility of case (c).

Propositions

No propositions.

198D Berg, Elliot J., "Socialism and Economic Development in Tropical Africa," *Qtrly. J. of Econ.* 78(4), 1964: 549-573.

1.015 In contemporary Africa most statesmen and intellectuals pro-
claim themselves "socialists" and advocate "a socialist path" to
7.14 development. Despite wide diversity in the ideas of those who
call themselves socialists, they contain certain common economic
7.16 attitudes or preconceptions. "Capitalism" is regarded as old-
fashioned, the economy of the colonisers, inadequate to meet
4.18 development needs, and morally unacceptable. The most specifically
African quality of African socialist thinking is the argument that
socialism is in fundamental harmony with African traditions, that
African society is already socialist and needs only to be recast
in modern terms.

Although in terms of concrete policies African socialists differ among themselves in many respects, there can be perceived a common general policy orientation which gives definable economic substance to socialist ideology: the State as the driving force in development, a distrust of the market mechanism and a preference for direct economic controls, emphasis on State take-over of the distribution sector, a preference for agricultural development through cooperatives or large-scale mechanized schemes rather than through the expansion of individual peasant production.

For several reasons, present African conditions make improbable the success of the kinds of policies generally called for by socialists in Africa. First, the State cannot bear the burdens that African socialists would put upon it; trained people are lacking, and will not be available for some time. Secondly, socialist approaches in agriculture are ill-suited to the special features of Africa's rural environment; economic and ecological conditions are not conducive to mechanized agricultural schemes, and the shift of peasant energies from subsistence to market activity, which is fundamental to economic growth, is not likely to be brought about by "socialist" measures. Thirdly, because of the existence of long frontiers, which can be controlled only with great difficulty, the economic policies of each African state cannot be too far out of line with those in neighboring states; if they are, large-scale smuggling can be expected. There are, finally, several other factors, of somewhat less generality: the fact that in these highly "politicised" societies the efficient operation of public enterprises is particularly difficult, the fact that African economies remain closely tied with world markets, and the fact that socialist parties will affect the rate of inflow of private capital.

Thus far the predominance of socialist policy has had limited effects on economic policy, except in a few countries, and notably in Guinea, where the results have been disastrous.

Propositions

5.123 (1) The probability that an individual will abandon traditional ways and adopt new orientations increases if he perceives a material advantage from the change. (P. 564.)
Evidence: Generalization from African experience.

198E Koopmans, Tjalling C., "Economic Growth at a Maximal Rate," Qtrly. J. of Econ., 78(3), 1964: 355-394.

3.01 This paper presents an exposition and some evaluation of results obtained by many authors in the study of the von Neumann
3.02 model of proportional growth, and of the turnpike conjecture of Dorfman, Samuelson, and Solow which extends the significance of
3.13 that model.

The model assumes a constant technology for converting inputs, available at the beginning of each period, into outputs available at the end of that period, to become again inputs for the next round of production. Consumption is treated as a proces producing labor services for use in the next period.

Limitation of the discussion to a two-commodity model plus the assumption of constant returns to scale make it possible to represent the reasoning geometrically with the help of three-dimensional figures shown in projection.

Unrealistic aspects of the basic assumptions are commented on at beginning and end of the paper. It is found that the analysis of maximal economic growth is simpler if different production processes carried out simultaneously reinforce each other rather than having merely additive results.

Propositions

No propositions.

198F Sutcliffe, Robert B., "Balanced and Unbalanced Growth," Qtrly. J. of Econ., 78(4), 1964: 621-640.

1.06 The article examines what have become two rival doctrines of economic growth in underdeveloped countries—"balanced growth" as

3.01 described by Nurkse and Rosenstein-Rodan and "unbalanced growth" as espoused by Streeten and Hirschman.

3.02 It concludes that of the two there are more inherent theoretical reasons to doubt the usefulness of balanced growth. There are many elements of both doctrines, however, which are insufficiently specified for them to be useful as either descriptive or prescriptive economic tools. It is too easy for either side to maintain that the same economic situation is an example of balanced or unbalanced growth.

Since both doctrines attach importance to external economies, a classification of these is proposed, largely in terms of their different linkage effects through the production matrix of the economy. Two alternative patterns of external economies are then suggested, which might correspond to the two doctrines respectively, and which might facilitate the distinction between the two, at least from a historical, descriptive point of view.

In a historical postscript the period of the English Industrial Revolution is examined in the framework of these two alternative patterns. The nature of early English industrial growth does hold out some temptation to see it as an example of unbalanced growth. Nevertheless, it is not an example of a strategy of growth. Underdeveloped countries today can draw few useful conclusions: the pattern of linkages and hence of external economies has changed and similar strategic unbalances may be hard to locate.

In general, the conflict of the two doctrines has been something of a mock battle; there can be few situations for which they are real alternative development strategies. Both doctrines are best seen as items in a much broader tradition of "big-push" or "great spurt" theories of economic development.

Propositions

No propositions.

198G Bottomley, Anthony, "The Premium for Risk as a Determinant of Interest Rates in Underdeveloped Rural Areas," Qtrly. J. of Econ., 76(4), 1963: 637-647.

3.06 Interest rates on privately made loans in underdeveloped rural areas are notoriously high, and it is often claimed that the toll which they levy on poor farmers is a serious hindrance to economic growth. This article examines the risk component of these interest rates, and sets out some of the ways in which it might be reduced. These methods are discussed under: (1) Secured Loans, and (2) Unsecured Loans.

It becomes clear that the premium for risk charged on secured loans will be the inverse of the value of the collateral against which the loan is made. But the value of security, when it is provided, seems to be a direct function of the degree of overall economic development in the rural community involved. High risk premiums are apparently inseparable from low levels of production, and they can only be expected to decline as farmers are able to harvest and market a larger surplus at more or less constant prices. Moreover, it can be shown that the same is true of the administrative costs on making loans in underdeveloped rural areas, and that these administration charges, together with the premium for risk, are probably the major determinants of the high level of interest rates which obtain throughout the underdeveloped world. It seems reasonable to claim, therefore, that interest rates in a poor country will almost certainly be an inverse function of the overall productivity of its farmers.

It this conclusion is a valid one, attempts to lower rural rates of interest will generally be doomed to failure unless they are made indirectly through improving conditions in the economy at large. This is probably the reason why so many governmentally inspired lending institutions seem to falter when they are obliged to offer credit on exceptionally favorable terms. Statutory limitations on the level of interest rates are also almost certain to be honored in the breach, and serve only to increase the premium for risk as the moneylender is compelled to defy the letter of the law.

The question of lowering interest rates to farmers in poor countries is not necessarily one of how to replace the private money-lender. It is rather one of creating a milieu in which he can operate without the need to impose high administration and risk charges on the money which he lends, and the establishment of such an environment involves, above all, measures to promote some degree of economic growth.

Propositions

3.01 (1) The probability that a modern economic structure will succeed in superseding a traditional structure performing the same

5.122 function is decreased if the modern structure is unable to rely upon social controls which sustain the traditional structure. (P. 639.)

Evidence: Example of modern credit facilities which in India are unable to rely upon the operation of social pressures which have supported payment of the money lender.

198H Cornwall, John, "Three Paths to Full Employment Growth," Qtrly. J. of Econ., 77(1), 1963: 1-25.

3.01 This paper explores the possibility of a capitalist system
achieving an adequate growth rate by merely maintaining full
3.02 employment through fiscal policy. A capital-stock adjustment
mechanism and a Cobb-Douglas production function describe, respec-
3.04 tively, the demand and supply sides of the model. The long run
implications of this system are strikingly similar to that of the
3.10 usual neoclassical models. If a flexible fiscal policy is sub-
stituted for a flexible price mechanism, the system eventually
7.231 achieves a rate of growth of output that depends solely on supply factors; i.e., the type of production function and the rate of growth of the labor force. This is true whether taxes or government spending is the instrument used. What does prove to be impractical is a full employment policy together with an annually balanced budget. Such a model exhibits extreme instability.

A study is also made of the budgetary implications of a tax or spending program. In both cases, the ratio of the deficit to output approaches a constant. Whether this ratio is positive or negative depends primarily on the size of the spending parameters. The larger the propensities to consume and invest, the more likely is a surplus to be run in the long run equilibrium. In addition, the relative size of the tax and government spending multipliers are studied. It is found that the conclusions of static theory with regards to their relative size are really special cases arising from the stability conditions necessary in static theory. The larger are the spending propensities, the more likely is the tax multiplier to be larger than the government spending multiplier.

Finally, simulation experiments are tried using the Klein Goldberger model in an effort to get some idea of the size of the budget implied by the fiscal programs and the critical values of the spending propensities.

Propositions

No propositions.

1981 Enke, Stephen, "Population and Growth: A General Theorem," *Qtrly. J. of Econ.*, 77(1), 1963: 55-70.

3.01 A relaxation of certain Malthusian assumptions--e.g., that
wages tend only to cover subsistence requirements of the working
3.02 classes and that all saving is by nonworkers--results in a more
general two-dimensional model of logical changes over time in
3.05 aggregate output, capital, labor force, and population. It is
ordinarily assumed that the rate of saving from income and the
5.01 crude death rate are dependent on income. Crude birth rates--for
convenience' sake--and technological improvement rates are treated
5.02 exogenously.
Given basic parameter values, trends in population, capital,
5.07 and output over time are critically sensitive to whether the per capita income that results in zero population change in any "year" is higher or lower than that which results in zero capital accumulation in the same period. If the former, population, capital, and output will increase indefinitely: but income per head, although it will probably rise during some periods, must eventually decline and everlastingly approach the per capita income that equates the dependent death rate with the independent birth rate. Thus, unless exogenous and variable changes occur in frugality, fertility, or technology, the "destined" income per head in an economy cannot continue to rise indefinitely. It will approach but not attain the per capita income associated with zero population increase. It fertility is low, this "floor" income per head may far exceed any subsistence minimums.

These conclusions differ from those of Nelson ("The Low-Level Equilibrium Trap," *AER*, December, 1956) because diminishing returns to labor and capital, attributable to limited natural resources, are assumed throughout. They differ from Malthus because families are not workers *or* savers but can be both, and landlords besides; also it is supposed that birth rates can be well below the biological maximum, so that no deaths are necessarily caused by dire poverty. In some respects this general theorem synthesizes Nelson and Malthus.

Propositions

3.05 (1) The probability of innovation is higher in an econcmy characterized by rising incomes and populations which encourage
3.11 investors to take risks. (P. 68.)
Evidence: Unsubstantiated assertion.

3.14

5.07

198J Mansfield, Edwin, "The Speed of Response of Firms to New Techniques," *Qtrly. J. of Econ.*, 77(2), May 1963: 290-311.

3.11 This article considers factors affecting the rate at which firms adopt new techniques. It is hypothesized that the adoption rate is a function of firm size and profitability. A model is created reflecting this hypothesis which is confirmed by the analysis of empirical data. Other factors are considered and found not to be significant.

Propositions

3.11 (1) The probability that a firm will adopt a new technique increases with firm size and with firm profitability. (P. 309.)
Evidence: Quantitative data; rate of adoption, firm size and firm profitability were analyzed for fourteen innovations in the coal, steel, brewing, and railroad industries.

198K Niehans, Jurg, "Economic Growth with two Endogenous Factors," *Qtrly. J. of Econ.* 77(3), 1963: 349-371.

3.01 The course of economic growth is analyzed on the basis of a
production function relating output to labor and capital. Whereas
3.02 in most--but not all--growth models labor is assumed to be given
exogenously, it is here considered as endogenous, its rate of
3.03 growth depending on per capita income. Two models are presented.
In the first, population is thought to be divided in two classes,
3.10 one of which propagates itself, but does not save, whereas the
other is accumulating capital but produces no off-spring beyond
reproduction. In the second model, both capital accumulation and proliferatoon are assumed to be done by the population as a whole. The general characteristics of the resulting growth processes for increasing, constant, and diminishing returns to scale are determined mathematically and presented in a simple graphical technique. It is shown that in the two-class model, except for certain limiting cases, diminishing returns set a finite limit to economic growth, whereas in the one-class model they do not necessarily prevent economic growth from going on forever. It is also shown that in a one-class world the relative position of the income levels at which people begin to save and to increase their numbers can be of about the same crucial importance for the course of growth as returns to scale in the two-class model. For the special case of constant returns, it is finally determined how the various savings and population parameters affect long-term income and growth.

Propositions

No propositions.

198L Rahman, Md. Anisur, "Regional Allocation of Investment: An Aggregative Study in the Theory of Development Programming," Qtrly. J. of Econ., 77(1), 1963: 26-39.

3.01
3.02
3.03

An enquiry is made into the structure of optimum program of investment allocation between two regions over time, optimization implying maximization of the sum of the two regional incomes at the end of a specified plan-period. The analysis runs in terms of regional aggregates, the model postulating a given capital/output ratio and a given rate of saving for each region as defined by linear and homogeneous investment and saving functions. A political constraint is also imposed in the form of a given "tolerance limit" to "regional income disparity" in either direction.

The line of reasoning consists of repeated application of Bellman's "Principle of Optimality," starting from optimal investment allocation in the last plan-year and working backwards through time. It is found that, unlike conventional von Neumann type models, the optimum program does not necessarily follow any one single "path," but instead may switch from one path to another during its temporal movement. More specifically, optimality requires investment to be concentrated (short of violating the relevant political tolerance limit) in the more productive region throughout the entire plan-period only if either (a) this region offers the higher "internal rate of growth" ("reinvestment coefficient," or saving-rate/capital-output ratio) or (b) the plan-period is a relatively short one; with a long enough plan-period and the less productive region offering the higher internal rate of growth, investment, investment should be concentrated in the less productive region in a number of initial years, after which a switch is to be made in "favor" of the more productive region.

The paper contains statements of the main conclusions of an n-region extension of the analysis, and is followed by an exposition of the n-region case in a note by Professor Dorfman.

Propositions

No propositions.

198M Rose, H., "Expectations and Stability in Neo-Keynesian Growth Theory," Qtrly. J. of Econ., 77(1), 1963: 71-94.

3.02
3.03
3.14

Experience suggests that economic growth is regulated by the growth of demand. But the extension of Keynesian theory into the long run unfortunately appears to require for stability that savers respond more powerfully than investors to disturbances of steady growth. This is not only intuitively unappealing: it places grave limitations on the power of the theory to explain fluctuations.

This article shows that these results can be escaped through a new hypothesis for entrepreneurs' profit-expectations, whereby they are stimulated not only by past growth-rates, but also by past accelerations of these rates. In consequence, the long-run stability condition is reversed, requiring entrepreneurs' reactions to be more powerful than savers'. This has interesting implications for cycle theory. Exogenous increases in demand are temporarily self-reinforcing, and excess profits appear. But the very vigor of entrepreneuss' reactions must kill the boom eventually, and may bring a slump before steady growth is resumed. Of interest, also, are the comparative statical implications. While the impact of increased thriftiness, or decreased investment, as in Keynesian theory, is depressing, in the long run higher thriftiness is beneficial, since it raises the (stable) equilibrium growth rate. Thus, the policy conclusions differ considerably from those usually deduced from Keynesian assumptions.

The rate of change of investment is assumed to depend on the expected profit rate, and the level of investment to determine the actual profit rate. With the hypothesis for expectations this establishes a system of two first-order differential equations in the profit rate and the growth rate. Local stability of the steady state is investigated by reference to the stability of the linear approximation round the steady-state solution. The stability conditions entail both the statical properties of the system and its dynamical behavior in the neighborhood of equilibrium.

Propositions

3.03 (1) The rate of change of entrepreneurial investment is a function of: (1) present profit rates, and (2) expected future profit rates. If (1) is normal and (2) is unchanged, the rate
3.14 of investment is constant. The rate of change of investment increases with a larger current rate of surplus profit and an expectation of larger profit rates in the future. (P. 76.)

Evidence: Assumption of the author's theoretical model of growth.

3.10 (2) The probability that entrepreneurs will innovate increases with full employment and decreases as rates of unemployment
3.14 rise. (P. 78.)

Evidence: Unsubstantiated assumption of the model.

198N Chenery, Hollis, B., "Development Policies for Southern Italy," Qtrly. J. of Econ., 76(4), 1962: 515-547.

1.06 The paper analyses two related questions: (1) the reasons
for the slower rate of growth in Southern Italy than in the
3.02 rest of the country; (2) alternative policies for accelerating
the rate of growth in the South.
3.05 Southern Italy has benefitted from a large-scale development
effort over the past ten years, but it has not expanded
3.06 as rapidly as the rest of the country. A regional model is
used to separate the causes of growth in each region into demand
5.07 effects and supply effects. It is shown that changes in supply
patterns have been insufficient to offset the slow growth for
5.10 Southern agriculture and other products.

To close the gap in income levels between the South and the North, a combination of internal migration and change in the structure of the Southern economy will be needed. The inter-regional model is used to demonstrate several alternative combinations of policy that will produce the desired effect. The most important change from the past is a more rapid growth of industry, which will require some revision of present industrial policies.

Propositions

5.07 (1) The probability that per capita income will be successfully raised increases as the rate of population growth falls. (p. 521.)

Evidence: Assumption of economic theory.

1980 Dalton, George, "Traditional Production in Primitive African Economies," Qtrly. J. of Econ. 76(3), August 1962: 360-378.

3.06 "There are at least two kinds of development problems for
the solution of which knowledge of primitive economic structure
3.13 is useful: (1) What accounts for the marked differnce in
receptivity to economic and technological change among primitive
societies? (2) Why is economic development often accompanied
by traumatic social change?" This paper shows two primitive
societies differ structurally from developed economies with
particular emphasis upon differences in the organization of
production.

Propositions

3.06 (1) If modern market mechanisms intrude into a traditional economy, there is a tendency for the accomodation to market

conditions to have side socio-economic ramification. (P. 369.)
Evidence: Example of the African situation and experience, but without specific substantiation.

3.13 5.113 (2) The probability that production will be perceived as a purely economic activity increases as production becomes divorced from activities expressing social obligations. (P. 371.)
Evidence: Unsubstantiated assertion.

198P Kahn, Alfred, E., "Agricultural Aid and Economic Development: The Case of Israel," Qtrly. J. of Econ. 76(4), 1962: 568-591.

3.173 The article discusses the conceptual and methodological problems involved in assessing the impact on a recipient country of a Public Law 480 program, involving loans of surplus agricultural commodities to finance economic development.

One cannot tell from the projects nominally financed by the local counterpart funds generated either what particular investments or how much in total was really financed by the program. The only true measure is which investments would have been sacrificed or by how much the total would have been less in the absence of the foreign aid; neither of these can be measured directly.

The permanent contribution of these investments to income-producing capacity falls somewhere between what can be inferred from incremental capital-to-output ratios and the market return on investment. The former exaggerates the marginal contribution of the capital alone; the latter underestimates it where the supply of capital is what imposes the critical restraint on growth. Against this benefit must be set the uncertain obligation to service and repay the loans.

In contrast, the program will have no temporary real income effects at all in the absence of excess capacity locally, or to the extent it permits autonomous or price-induced increases in consumption either of the surplus products themselves or, by easing the foreign exchange situation, of other imports. For the latter reasons the program may have a counter-inflationary influence, as seems to have occurred in Israel.

In all these respects, foreign aid-in-kind is likely to differ very little from aid in free foreign exchange. The major unique effects are at the micro level--on patterns of world trade in the surplus commodities. These are likely to be great unless aid-in-kind is only a part of a broader and more broadly financed developmental effort.

Propositions

No propositions.

199A Miller, P. A., "Research Beyond the Borders," Res. and Farming, 21(1-2), Summer-Autumn 1962: 16-17.

4.02 This article describes the role of advisor-specialists
played by Americans in Peru. The author indicates field differ-
3.173 ences in agriculture and discusses some of the problems faced.

200A Tepicht, J., "Agrarian Relations and the Growth of Ahricultural Production," Res. Papers Center Res. Underdeveloped Econ., 1, 1963: 55-76.

4.01 The influence of agrarian structure on agricultural produc-
tion is analyzed. The structure of agrarian reform should be
4.07 determined by the maximum amount of land that can be cultivated
by one person and the surplus obtained should be distributed
4.10 among landless agricultural laborers or small farmers. The level
of this maximum depends on: (1) amount of land available, (2)
4.12 number of people needing land, (3) opportunities for employment
in non-agricultural occupations, (4) possibility of more inten-
4.14 sive husbandry on small farms. The supply of credit on easy
terms and the creation of marketing co-operatives are essential
requirements. Measures should be taken to prevent parcelling.
If the situation is not suitable for co-operatives, governmental
institutions should take control.

2C1A Fei, John C. H., and Douglas S. Paauw, "Foreign Assistance and Self-Help: A Reappraisal of Development Finance," Review of Economics and Statistics, 47(3), 1965: 251-267.

3.02
3.17 The relationship between foreign capital inflows and progress toward self-sustained growth in developing countries is studied as the central aspect of the "self-help" problem. An aggregate, dynamic model of a modified Harrod-Domar type is constructed and applied to a sample group of less-developed countries. The analysis yields both quantitative and qualitative results. Numerical answers are provided to questions such as the duration of required capital inflow, the time path of this inflow, and its accumulated value over time. By identifying and classifying specific types of assistance relationships, the model also provides policy guidance for formulating foreign assistance strategy as well as for domestic development planning.

2C1B Bottomley, Anthony, "The Determination of Pure Rates of Interest in Underdeveloped Rural Areas," Review of Economics and Statistics," 46(3), 1964: 301-304.

4.05 When a moneylender loans a dollar to a farmer he must be satisfied that he has no better use for it. Broadly speaking, he will have two alternative ways of employing his funds: (1) To make investments other than in loans to farmers, and (2) To satisfy his own demand for liquidity.

Theoretically, the opportunity cost of money loaned or invested under consideration (1) should be reduced by competitive forces to a level close to the rate of return on government bonds. If the moneylender's reserves are ample, this will be the opportunity cost which the interest on his loans to farmers must meet (of course, it will also have to cover the perhaps greater additional premiums for administering the loan as well as for the risk of lending to the farmer). The situation with consideration (2), the moneylender's preference for liquidity, is a little different. The rural credit agent may have a liquidity preference which yields a value to his marginal cash holdings in excess of the going rate of return on outside investments. This will normally happen if he operates on slender reserves, or if he encounters a sudden increase in the demand for his funds consequent upon harvest failure. In these circumstances the pain of parting with liquidity may reach "exorbitant" proportions. This will sharply raise the overall cost of every unit which he lends.

Given these assumptions, an attempt is made to show what policies central bank and fiscal authorities should follow in their efforts to reduce the cost of private credit to the farmer in poor countries. The general conclusion is that the provision of collateral against a moneylender's loans, as opposed to a mere verbal promise to repay, will be crucial in any campaign to reduce not only the pure rural rate of interest, but also its administration, risk, and monopoly profit components as well. Such collateral will make a moneylender's loans open to discount with commerical banks and thus render the supply of his credit more elastic at the margin. It will also reduce his premium for risk since he should always be able to collect. Moreover, if the development of collateral puts some farmers in direct touch with commerical banks and with competing moneylenders, unit administration and monopolo profit changes will be reduced among those moneylenders who survive.

201C Eckaus, Richard S., "Economic Criteria for Education and Training," Review of Economics and Statistics, 46(2), 1964: 181-190.

3.19 Prices are involved in an essential way, both in the estimation of the human capital created by education and of the rate of return
6.16 to education. These prices, in order to serve as a basis for policy decisions on the allocation of resources, should reflect the relative scarcities of the factors involved.

It is often difficult to identify an effective price for education to which the individual may be considered as responding. In addition, the significant public good elements in education imply that a market price for education, even if approximated, would not indicate reliably all relevant demand and supply influences. Moreover, prices have typically been applied as if all education were attributable to capital formation.

The burden of the argument is that the measures of investment in education and the returns to education are not reliable guides to policy. The issues, however, are in part empirical and a more conclusive opinion waits on better information. An alternative approach is to estimate directly the real economic requirements for education, based on: (1) A complete listing of employment in job categories which permit the distinction of the differential education and training requirements; (2) A description of the amounts of the various types of education which are required for an average level of performance in each job.

Such information makes it possible to classify all employment by education types and levels and, therefore, to find in total and sector by sector the educational requirements of the labor force. These results would not indicate how much education had actually been given and received in schools, but the amounts effectively used in operating the economy. The potential of this approach as well as its own set of problems is illustrated by means of an example of its application to the United States economy. Tables are given indicating on an industry basis the distribution of general education and specific vocational training requirements.

201D Pincus, John A., "The Cost of Foreign Aid," Review of Economics and Statistics, 45(4), 1963: 360-367.

3.17 Burden sharing has received increasing attention as a method of financing the budgets of international organizations, and as a basis for discussing contributions to underdeveloped countries' economic development.

One relevant question is "What is the real cost of economic aid?". The existing definition, used by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, is the sum of all contributions tions, valued at their nominal amounts, whether grants or loans (long-term or medium), in cash or kind, tied or untied.

This method fails to measure the real cost of aid to the donor. A more meaningful definition would be to express the aid totals as the present value of all forms of aid payments less the present value of repayments, both discounted at a rate reflecting the alternative employment of public capital.

Using this method to compute the value of United States aid in 1961 and 1962, and Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development members' aid in 1962, we find that official aid totals greatly overstate real costs. The combined official 1962 total was $7.7 billion, compared to $4.8 to $6.0 billion under the revised definition, varying according to the discount rate and the method of valuing contributions of agricultural surpluses. By this definition, the real contributions of all countries decline, with Portugal, the United Kingdom and Germany declining relatively more and France, Canada, and the United States relatively less; this reflects a relative preponderance of grants and long-term, low-interest loans by the latter.

This definition does not account for such problems as the valuation of tied aid, on contributions in kind, or loans repayable in borrowers' currency. Despite these deficiencies, it does provide a clearer picture of the cost of international aid than the current official method.

202A Atwar Hussain, A. F., "The Comilla Co-operative Experiment," Review Int'l. Cooperation, 57(2), 1964: 66-83.

1.022 The pilot project in Comilla, East Pakistan, is nearly three
years old. The progress achieved by the co-operatives has been
4.14 uneven, but judged by the performance of co-operatives in the past,
even the least successful of the co-operatives at Comilla should
4.17 be considered successful. The peasants had previously struggled
with small holdings; all the land which could be farmed has been
5.08 farmed. Nevertheless half the time the land remained uncultivated
because of the low winter rainfall. With cooperation, all produc-
7.231 tion factors except land were pooled; these included planning,
capital, machinery, irrigation, and human skill. The Comilla Central Co-operative Association and its member co-operatives are now self-supporting institutions. The Thana Training Center is financed by government aid; here the organizers of the village groups attend adult school once a week. The project has been successful not merely because emphasis has been placed on supervised credit, but because it is part of a comprehensive program of rural development covering not only modernization of agriculture, but improvement of local admnnistration, of education, and of the status of women. The Comilla Central Cooperative Association decided in 1961-1962 to undertake banking functions. Rural credit is now obtained from a commercial bank, The sound system of rural credit is based on the following principles: regular thrift deposits, group planning, adoption of improved methods, and productive investments. Members are also encouraged to save in kind. Currently the number of co-operatives has increased to 131 with a total membership of nearly 4,500.

202B Spaull, Hebe, "Cooperative Organizations in East Africa," Review Int'l. Cooperation, 54, October 1961: 259-262.

1.01 This article provides a general view of the cooperative move-
ment in Tanganyika, Kenya, and Uganda.
4.17

202C Spaull, Hebe, "Unusual Cooperative Development in Sierra Leone," Review of Int'l Cooperation, 52, October 1959: 263-265.

1.138 The popular demand for the formation of cooperatives is greater
than can be met by the limited trained staff available. Sometimes
4.17 enthusiastic peasants take matters into their own hands and orga-
nise a society which cannot be recognised by the registrar. Agricultural cooperatives owning tractors are playing a part in the development of new rice lands. Five such societies have brought 22 tractors with the help of loans, and are cultivating 3,500 acres. Other types of societies are also described.

203A Fleigel, F.C., "Differences in Prestige Standards and Orientation to Change in a Traditional Agricultural Setting," *Rural Sociology*, 30(3), 1965: 278-290.

1.032
5.06
The study examines the propositions that (1) man desires recognition and (2) the qualities and types of performance, the standards by which recognition is measured and awarded, are not the same for all groups or societies at a given point in time. Data were obtained from 142 small farm operators in South Brazil. The aim was to establish an index of prestige standards that differentiates between an orientation to ownership and consumption of goods and services, and an orientation to the giving of time, resources, and energy. Prestige orientation based on giving inhibits the seeking of information on new ideas which, in turn, results in non-adoption of modern farm practices. The implication is that the ends of industrial society must be accepted before means to those ends will be accepted.

203B Pareek, U., and G. Trivedi, "Factor Analysis of Socio-economic Status of Farmers in India," *Rural Sociology*, 30(3), 1965: 311-321.

1.021
5.062
To analyze the internal structure of the concept of rural socio-economic status and to examine whether such status is a unidimensional or multidimensional concept, data were collected from a sample of 512 families in a block of villages near Delhi. A specially standardized scale of factors all equally weighted, viz. (1) land, (2) education, (3) house, (4) occupation, (5) caste, (6) farm power, (7) material possessions, (8) family, and (9) social participation, was used. Using the centroid method of factor analysis with orthogonal rotation, the analysis revealed three main factors in socio-economic status: (a) social influence or quality of living; (b) caste or occupation; and (c) land or economic status. There appears to be no clear-cut demarcation between social and economic factors and the three above-mentioned factors support the hypothesis that socio-economic status is not a unidimensional but a multidimensional construct.

203C Bose, Santi Priya, "The Diffusion of a Farm Practice in Indian Villages," *Rural Sociology*, 29(1), March 1964: 63-66.

All of the households in seven Indian villages were interviewed regarding the adoption of certain agricultural practices. Data from these interviews were used to test the hypothesis that "the cumulative proportion of persons first adopting a practice will tend to approximate the growth of "S" curve when plotted by successive years." The data supported the hypothesis that the diffusion of agricultural practices would describe an "S" curve.

Propositions

1.021 (1) The rate of diffusion of new techniques describes an "S" curve.
In a population a new method is initially adopted by a small
4.10 number of innovators. When the efficacy of the technique is
demonstrated, it is rapidly adopted by the majority. Finally,
the technique is slowly adopted by the remaining members of
the population. (P. 65.)

Evidence: Analysis of data from interviews with all members of seven Indian towns in which 80% or more of the population had adopted particular practices; constructed, expected, and observed cumulative frequency distribution.

203D Brandner, Lowell and Bryant Kearl, "Evaluation for Congruence as a Factor in Adoption rate of Innovations," Rural Sociology, 29(3), September 1964: 288-303.

1.06 Research confirms the hypothesis that persons who evaluate an
innovation as being congruent with a previous favorably evaluated
4.10 practice will accept the innovation more rapidly than those who
fail to make such an evaluation. Certain factors were measured be-
4.18 tween an area where farmers had had experience with hybrid corn
and an area where they had not. Both had long experience with grain sorghums. Comparisons also were made between adopters and nonadopters within areas. Comparisons were made on such factors as age, education, mobility, income, acres operated, years farmed, percentage of acres cultivated, economic importance or various farm enterprises, etc. Ten-year production figures and open-end questions were used to determine the economic importance of both corn and sorghums in each area. Only one adopted in the corn area considered sorghums first or second as a source of income; every adopter in the sorghum area named sorghums as first or second in importance as a source of income. Statistically significant differences between adopters in the two areas on factors studied included: economic importance of the crop, .001 level; dealer orientation, .001; sprayed to kill weeds sooner, .001; willing to experiment. Nearly all other factors tested also favored (at levels not considered significant statistically) the area where sorghums were economically important. All those factors indicated that hybrid sorghums would be accepted most rapidly in the sorghum area. One factor--the idea that hybrid corn was better than old standard corn varieties (difference significant at the .001 level--indicated that hybrid sorghums would be accepted most rapidly in

the sorghum area. One factor - the idea that hybrid corn was better than old standard corn varities (difference significant at the .001 level) - indicated that hybrid sorghums would be accepted most rapidly in the corn area. Congruence - or that hybrid sorghums are like hybrid corn - seemed to account for the rapid acceptance of hybrid sorghums in the area where they were less important economically. It is concluded that researchers who ignore congruence in explaining acceptance of change may incorrectly credit influence of congruence to another factor(s) being investigated.

Propositions

1.06 The probability that an individual will adopt an innovation is
increased if the innovation is perceived as being congruent to
4.10 some innovation which the individual has already successfully
adopted. (P. 302.)
4.18 Evidence: Interview with 86 farmers in two Kansas Counties;
used X^2.

203E Gallin, G. "Rural development in Taiwan: the role of the government." Rural Sociology, 29(3): Sept. 1964: 313-323

1.028 This study examines within the cultural setting of rural
5.08 Taiwan the interplay of two aspects of the multi-faceted rural
6.14 development program of the Nationalist Chinese government:
7.232 land reform and education.

Propositions

(1) The probability that an individual will migrate from his native area is increased by increased education. (P.320)
Evidence: Generalization from the example of Taiwan; not quantitative.

203F Schuler, Edgar A., "The Origin and Nature of the Pakistan Academies for Village Development," Rural Sociology, 29(3), Sept. 1964: 304-312

1.022 The government of Pakistan has sought to speed up and
strengthen the processes of rural sociological change and
4.02 economic development through the establishment and operation of
two new official agencies - the Pakistan Academies for Village
5.08 Development, at Comilla in East and at Peshawar in West Pakiston -
which apply social science theory, knowledge and approaches in

6.04 the training and education of the categories of government officers mainly responsible for the modernization of Pakistan.
6.05 The planning and establishment, including preparation of the faculty and directors of the Academies, is reviewed. Comilla
6.06 Academy operations include training of villagers as well as officers, experimentation with pilot scale projects in a
6.08 county-size social laboratory area, and research on how modernization and economic development can most effectively and efficiently be achieved. Some of the principles which have been identified as characterizing its successful demonstration projects are given.

No Propositions; deals with the history of the academies.

203G Stockwell, Edward G., "Socio-economic and Demographic Differences Among Underdeveloped Areas," Rural Sociology, 28, 1963: 165-174.

5.07 In the study reported here, 23 underdeveloped areas are grouped into three broad demographic types on the basis of levels of fertility and mortality, and then compared in terms of selected socio-economic characteristics. The results of the analysis not only emphasize the fact of differentiation, but also demonstrate that the demographic differences among underdeveloped areas are strongly associated with the social and economic differences that exist among them: the more primitive the nature of the demographic balance, the lower the level of social and economic well-being. This finding clearly emphasizes the need to exercise extreme caution in making generalizations that pertain to the characteristic features of underdeveloped areas as a whole.

Propositions

5.07 The probability of economic development will be increased if a society's birth rate and death rate decline. (PP. 173-174)

Evidence: Underdeveloped nations were catagorized into one of three types on the basis of demographic data (UN). Demographic variables were then compared with economic variables. Some relationships were significant at the .05 level and others at the .01 level.

203H Young, F.W. and R.C. Young, "Occupational Role Perceptions in Rural Mexico," Rural Sociology, 27(1), March, 1962: 42-52.

1.043 "Consensus exists among the men on the social meaning of the two traditional village occupations of farmer and shop keeper,
5.08 but it is lacking with respect to the newly opened job of factory worker. However, those who desire each of three jobs have defi-
5.12 nite conceptions of them: the shop keeper's role is seen as of high prestige and the urban, the farmer's task is thought to allow peace of mind and independence, and the factory worker's job is agreeable and allows a better family life. The particular findings are at variance with the usual derivations of the folk-urban conception, and it is proposed that Western biases built in the research techniques, unidimensionality and polarity of attributes, and over-simplified models of social structure and motivation often inhibit investigation of occupational roles."

203I Bose, Santi P., "Characteristics of Farmers Who Adopt Agricultural Practices in Indian Villages," Rural Sociology, 26(2), June, 1961: 138-145.

1.021 An investigation was carried out in ten villages to ascertain the characteristics of farmers who adopted the improved practices.
4.10 It was found that of those who adopted them, more belonged to the higher castes, were literate, and had higher participation in
4.18 community activities. There was some indication that those who owned their farms adopted slightly more that those who did not own their farms.

Propositions

1.021 (1) The probability that an individual will adopt innovation practices increases as the individual's sphere of contact
4.10 widens. Therefore, innovation practices are more likely to be adopted by individuals who are of higher social
4.18 status, who are literate, and who are involved in community activities. (PP. 141-145)

Evidence: Survey of all families in ten Indian villages; percentage distributions of variables were computed, as was X^2.

203J Hillery, George A. Jr., "The Folk Village: A Comparative Analysis," Rural Sociology, 26(4), December 1961: 337-353.

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A non-mathematical model is developed of one type of community, termed the "folk village." Ten villages, each from a different culture, provide the only data, and the model's nineteen components (or subelements) are grouped into elements of interaction, space, activities, sentiment, and norms. The more variable components are eliminated as possible integrating factors, on the premise that the nature of the folk village resides in its constants. One means of integrating the components is offered in the definition: "The folk village is a localized system of cooperating families." This definition furnishes a basis for describing the elements as they appear in the villages. The findings are used as limiting factors in evaluating earlier concepts. Selected definitions of community are re-examined, and the relation of the model to Redfield's folk society is briefly indicated.

203K Hilton, Norman, "Technology, Economy and Society in Long-settled Area," Rural Sociology, 26(4), December 1961: 381-394.

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A change in technology, economic conditions, social organizations or human attitudes may serve to instigate a chain reaction throughout a whole socio-economic structure. On the other hand, it can rejuvenate certain aspects of that structure which might otherwise have outlived their usefulness. The possibility of such contrasting consequences of change in any particular sphere gives rise to a need for the most comprehensive type of investigation wherever the status quo is to be altered by deliberately planned action. This in turn calls for the close collaboration of many professionals and academic disciplines.

No Propositions; A case study is discussed, but primarily from a methodological perspective.

203L Saunders, J.V.D., "Man-land relations in Ecuador," Rural Sociology, 26(1), March 1961:57-69.

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A broad outline of man-land relations in Ecuador is presented in this paper. The system of minifundia and latifundia introduced at the time of the Spanish conquest is still found on the contemporary scene. Land utilization is affected by size of holdings, 4.15 4.16 4.17 and there is a direct relationship between size of holding and the percentage of land employed for pastures and an inverse relationship between size of holdings and the proportion of land given over to cultivation. Large land holdings are used less efficiently than small ones. While there are six land tenure categories in rural Ecuador, three quarters or more of the rural farm population can best be classified as agricultural laborers. In the highlands, the general characteristic of the systems employed for the remuneration of agricultural labor is that the landowner does not need to pay his laborers cash wages, recompensing them instead by the use of land. Rudimentary plough culture and fire agriculture are the systems of agriculture upon which most reliance is placed for the cultivation of the soil.

203M Alvers-Montalvo, Manuel, "Social Systems Analysis of Supervised Agricultural Credit in an Andean Community," Rural Sociology, 25(1), March 1960: 51-64.

1.031 4.05 This paper describes the first year's operation of a project in supervised agricultural credit in a Peruvian highland community and analyzes it in terms of the dynamic aspects of systemic elements such as goals, norms, sanctions, power, etc. The conclusion to the paper summarizes an explanation of the events occuring during the year.

Propositions

1.031 5.112 5.113 (1) The probability that an organization's aims will be accepted is significantly related to the mobilization of traditional values in support of or in opposition to opposed change. (P. 63)

Evidence: Conclusion from a non-statistical case study of change in a Peruvian village.

5.062 (2) If individuals occupying authoritative local positions support an organization, then their support tends to "legitimize" the organization's activities. (P. 63)

Evidence: Same as in Number (1).

5.122 5.123 (3) If an activity has some initial success in realizing its goals, then the activity tends to be more readily accepted by the people. This is true if secondary goals are at least partially realized even in the absences of realization of primary goals. (P. 64)

Evidence: Same as in Numbers (1) and (2).

203N Beers, Howard W., "Program Evaluation in India," Rural Sociology, 25(4), December 1960: 430-441.

1.021 4.02 5.08 The Program Evaluation Organization was established by the Government of India in 1952 to provide continuing evaluations of the community development programs then being initiated by that newly independent nation. During its first 6 years Program Evaluation Organization published more than 25 reports touching on nearly all aspects of the community development operation. PEO became a conspicuous example of organization for evaluation, and it demonstrated on a large scale the interaction of program operation and program evaluation. The work of PEO is not widely known in countries other than India, but its successful and useful prosecution of several studies, its prompt production of useful reports, and its consequent influence on policy, program, and methods of community development are of interest to people concerned with education and community development. Twenty-seven PEO studies between 1952 and 1958, are listed and annotated.

No Propositions; The emphasis is on PEO and not upon substantive findings.

2030 Blair, Thomas L., "Social Structure and Information Exposure in Rural Brazil," Rural Sociology, 25(1), March 1960: 65-75.

1.032 4.183 5.05 5.15 Data on the use of mass media, social visiting, and contact with outside persons were collected by questionaires, case histories, and field observation methods. The author concludes that in the Brazilian rural town community, there have developed patterns of information exposure related to status in the socio-economic structure.

Propositions

1.032 4.183 5.06 5.15 (1) The probability that an individual will be reached by appeals designed to change his attitudes is greatest when appeals are made at the level of maximum receptivity. An individual is most receptive at a level related to his perception of the role he occupies in relation to the groups in which he holds membership or wishes to hold membership. (P. 75)

Evidence: Conclusion from questionnaires, case histories, and observation in a Brazilian village. This proposition is non-statistical inference.

203P Chapparro, A. and R.H. Allee, "Higher Agricultural Education and Social Change in Latin America," Rural Sociology, 25, 1960: 9-25.

1.03 This paper reports the results of an exploratory survey of
1.04 higher agricultural education in Latin America, and relates
3.01 these and other findings to "development". Education in general
6.01 and agricultural education in particular are placed in a cultural
6.02,6.05 context, which in turn is utilized to explain the current situation
6.06,6.08 with regard to education in Latin America.

Propositions

1.03 (1) The probability of economic development will be reduced if
1.04 traditional values continue to dominate an economy's educa-
6.01 tional system.

Evidence: Generalization from Latin American experience; quantitative data on the distribution of students are presented.

203Q Goncalves de Souza, J., "Aspects of Land Tenure Problems in Latin America," Rural Sociology, 25(1), March 1960: 26-37.

1.03 The problem of the relation between man and land in Latin
America is assuming great importance. The present agrarian
1.04 property system undeniably constitutes one of the most serious
obstacles to economic development and social progress of the
4.14 twenty Latin American countries. The large estate and the very
small farm operate hand in hand. The different forms of land-holding - some introduced by the Spanish and Portuguese colonizers, others inherited from the Indians or recently incorporated into rural life as a result of European and Japanese immigration - bring to the problem a wealth of forces worthy of special consideration.

203R Mayo, S.C.,"An Analysis of the Organizational Role of the Teacher of Vocational Agriculture," Rural Sociology, 25(3), September 1960: 334-345.

7.06 "The major purpose of this study was to examine the position
of teachers of vocational agriculture in terms of the source,
6.08 direction, and intensity of expectations relative to developing
and sustaining formal organizations through which educational

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objectives are attained, and to examine the position in relation to the correspondence of role behavior and these expectations.

The organizational work system of the teacher of vocational agriculture may be analyzed into three phases. During the four decades since the passage of the Smith-Hughes Act, two formal organizations have become a part of the traditional work system - one for the in-school group and one for the out-of-school group. The organizational work system is expanding, but the intensity of these expectations is highly variable from the national level down through the local level. Finally, many vocational agricultural teachers are developing new images of the education potential of many agricultural organizations. There is evidence of considerable role conflict resulting from the changing work system."

203S Moreira, J. Roberto, "Rural Education and Socio-Economic Development in Brazil," Rural Sociology, 25(1), March 1960: 38-50.

1.032 An examination of rural teaching in Brazil, giving considera-
6.04 tion to the historical aspects as well as to the most recent
6.05 economic developments. The present structure of rural society
6.08 is analysed and the problems of rural education are examined
within this context. The Federal government's attempts to solve
teaching problems in rural areas are also evaluated.

Propositions

1.032 (1) The probability that individuals will remain interested in
6.01 education will be reduced, if education is not perceived as
being relevant to their situation. (P. 44)
Evidence: Generalization from Brazil's experience; not quantitative.

203T Sariola, S., "A Colonization Experiment in Bolivia," Rural Sociology, 25(1), March 1960: 76-90.

1.040 This study describes an experiment in colonization in Bolivia.
Migration and resettlement of peasants from the Cochabamba Valley
4.10 area to the Montero region in Santa Cruz were affected in various
ways by the attitudes of the colonizers and by a series of social,
5.10 cultural and economic factors. The attitudes of the Cochabamba
Valley peasants were found to be favorable to migration. Among
the colonizing experiences which negatively affected these atti-
tudes and contributed to instability among the settlers were

fatigue caused by work in the Santa Cruz colony, the lack of farming implements, and the lack of social rewards derived from community life, dangers connected with the new environment, and changes in food habits. The influence on colonization of the valley women's attitudes, the relationships between the colony and the neighboring communities, the structural patterns of the colonizing group, and some socio-political phenomena on the national level are discussed.

203U Van Der Kroef, Justus M., "Land Tenure and Social Structure in Rural Java," Rural Sociology, 25(4), December 1960: 414-430.

1.023
4.14
4.16

Javanese land tenure patterns tend to fall between polar opposites of strong communal ownership or right of disposal and individual ownership with few communal privileges. As a result of advancing population pressure and the absence of new land reserves that can be brought under cultivation, individualistic tenure patterns are steadily increasing at the expense of erstwhile communal controls. Tenancy and sharecropping practices today show great variety and flexibility. Simultaneously the traditional social strata of rural society have been disrupted and new, so-called "functional" loyalties become apparent in the village community, especially among the rural proletariat. The ideological rationale of these processes is provided by the Indonesian Communist Party, which has steadily gained adherents in rural Java in the past few years.

203V Lindstrom, David E., "Diffusion of Agricultural and Home Economics Practices in a Japanese Rural Community," Rural Sociology, 23(2), June 1958: 171-183.

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This study of the acceptance of farming and homemaking practices is based upon interviews with 92 householders in a Japanese hamlet. It was found that the practices adopted most often were those requiring changes in techniques and operations and did not require changing the enterprise. Such adoptions were accompanied by favorable attitudes toward the practice. Attitudes toward adopting practices were influenced by mass media; but the chief influence causing adoption was the observation of good results obtained by other farmers and the urging of extension advisors and neighbors.

Propositions

1.025 4.10 (1) If new practices are to be voluntarily adopted, then a favorable attitude toward the practices must be formed. (P. 174)
Evidence: Interviews with Japanese householders; percentage results; used X^2.

(2) The probability that an individual will be persuaded to adopt a new practice is greater if the agent of change is local than if the agent of change is more distant. (P. 179)
Evidence: Same as in Number (1).

203W Anderson, W.A., T. Lynn Smith and Afif I. Tannous, "Social Values and Technical Cooperation Programs," Rural Sociology, 21(1), March 1956: 62-79.

3.173 5.11 A discussion of values held by people in the Far East, Latin America, and the Middle and Near East in relation to technical cooperation programs. In relation to the Far East, the study emphasizes the great importance to the people of traditional ways, but that change in the organization and operation of village life in the Orient is proceeding with great speed; that the accelerated accumulation of ideas and activities has created a cultural threshold which results in rapid change and that rural ferment is nearly universal in the East. Village organization has for centuries held peasants together through a self-sufficient production program supported by local handicrafts. Today a commercial money economy has penetrated the villages and in the process of reintegration, social tensions and dislocations appear. Also, the new idea that the person is society's most valuable possession is becoming a chief value in the Orient. A major task in technical cooperation programs is to develop a consciousness in rural Orientals that they can improve their own lot if they will act. Effective technical cooperation depends as much on knowledge of the social organization through which cultures express themselves and the values which they support as on sound technical information. The study also relates values held by people in Latin America, emphasizing the tremendous variation in values in various parts of Latin America. One set of values with which familiarity is most important for those working in technical cooperation programs is the class system. Latin American society early became differentiated into a small, wealthy, highly educated white elite, and a mass of humble, poverty-stricken, disease-ridden, illiterate, colored or mixed blood agricultural laborers. Recent migration of laborers has not changed the class system but transformed a part of the lower class into a degraded urban proletariat. European immigrants to Latin American cities and rural areas now mark the development of a genuine middle class. Closely related values are those of disrepute of manual labor, the lavish use of labor, a pessimistic view of life, and the futility of long-time plans. The section on the Middle East indicates that unless the cultural context is seriously taken into consideration, projects of training and demonstration will run the risk of delay, frustration, arrested development, or complete failure. This fundamental reality is illustrated under the following headings: (1) Islam is the predominant religion and sets the basic pattern of life, (2) nationalism constitutes a supreme value, (3) individuals do not amount to much but are complete as social beings only when related to family and community, (4) a highly developed time-consciousness is lacking, (5) the personal touch in human relations is a pronounced feature of life, (6) the two related values of hospitality and generosity are cherished, and (7) Middle East society is segmented: the elite are a small minority, and the great majority of people are deprived.

203X Hill, G.W. and G. Beltran, "Land Settlement in Venezuela: With Special Reference to the Turen Project," Rural Sociology, 17, September 1952: 229-236.

1.038 "This paper attempts to demonstrate certain sociological and
cultural factors which have hitherto diverted the streams of
4.14 European migration from tropical America to the temperate zones,
namely, (1) folk misconceptions concerning the nutritive value
4.15 of tropical foods and causal factors in diseases; (2) incompati-
bility of religious and political processes; (3) monopolistic land
4.17 practices; (4) difficulty of communications; and (5) nonexistence
of the attractions embodied in the 'agricultural ladder'. The
4.18 conclusions suggest that only government directed immigration of
large-scale proportions and government-sponsored land development
policies, such as are found in the Turen settlement, are feasible
today. This is in contrast to the individualistic policies of
the past century."

204A Beckford, G.L.F., "Agriculture in the Development of Trinidad and Tobago: A Comment," Social and Econ. Studies, 14(2), June 1965: 217-220.

1.045 "This note briefly examines the program for agricultural development as outlined in the Trinidad and Tobago Draft Second Five-Year Plan, 1964-1968." The author seeks to encourage further comments on the proposals of the draft plan.
1.048
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204B Gorter, Wytze, "Adaptable Capitalists: The Dutch in Indonesia," Social and Econ. Studies, 13(3), September 1964: 377-382.

1.023 The question of whether Dutch business interests in Indonesia were able to survive Indonesian independence and consequent takeover of their businesses is raised and answered through a study of a sample of 164 firms. It was found that those companies which diversified their production and geographically dispersed their operations paid dividends to stockholders as of 1958, indicating successful adaptation to the potentially disastrous situation.
3.13
5.023

204C Young, Bruce S., "Jamaica's Long-Term Development Program," Social and Econ. Studies, 13(3), September 1964: 370-376.

1.041 Awareness of the spatial setting and relationships of development projects and social and economic problems is largely absent from the published Independence Plan. It is suggested that a geographical and regional approach should figure more prominently in the national plan and that surveys and enquiries be vigorously pursued with a view to more intensive and integrated regional planning.
3.07

204D Andic, Fuat M., "The Measurement of Inequality in the Distribution of Taxable Income in Puerto Rico, 1955-58," Social and Econ. Studies, 12(1), March 1963: 72-77.

1.044 An examination of the relationship between the income levels and income recipients as appearing in Puerto Rican income tax statistics between 1955 and 1958. Four measures of inequality are applied to the individual income tax returns by income brackets furnished by the Informe Anual del Secretario de Hacienda (Annual Report of the Secretary of the Treasury), San Juan, 1955-1958. The goodness of fit of the V. Pareto, C. Gini, and Gibrat formulae to the given data is examined, and the concentration ratio
3.01
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(the Lorenz curve) applied. The results seem to indicate that of the three formulae, the Gini equation gives the best goodness of fit with the least error. For simple measurements of inequality, however, a simple technique, such as the Lorenz curve and the concentration ratio, suffices. It is concluded that the distribution of taxable incomes has become more equal during the period concerned, as indicated by the different methods of measurement with varying degree of reliability; i.e., there have been changes in the stratification of taxable incomes so as to increase the weight of the middle-income groups.

Propositions

No propositions

204E Kreinin, Mordechai E., "Joint Commercial Enterprises as a Vehicle for Extending Technical Aid: Israel's Experience in Afro-Asian Countries," Social and Econ. Studies, 12(4), December 1963: 459-470.

1.234

3.173

A modified version of a chapter in M.E. Kreinin, Israel and Africa: A Study in Technical Cooperation (N.Y.: Frederick A. Praeger, 1964), relative to a study of 12 joint enterprises in the fields of shipping, water resource development, and construction. Joint enterprises are set up in partnership between Israeli semi-public Asian countries. In addition to surveying the activity of joint enterprises, their usefulness for extending technical aid is evaluated, role of the joint enterprises' economic development is discussed, and the crucial problems they encountered in the field are explored. On balance, joint enterprises are found an extremely useful tool for granting technical aid; and it is suggested that such a tool may well be adapted by other aid-giving nations.

Propositions

1.234 (1) The probability that technical assistance will be enthusiastically accepted by the recipient nation increases if the recipient does not fear that they will be exploited or dominated. (P. 469.)

3.173

Evidence: Unsubstantiated generalization, presumably based upon past experience.

204F McLoughlin, P.F.M. "The Sudan's Gezira Scheme: an Economic Profile," Social and Econ. Studies, 12(2), June 1963: 179-199.

1.128 This article outlines the output and expenditure profiles and the labor force occupation and income in the Gezira region of
3.05 the Sudan. "Greater overall productivity, incidence of wage labor, and higher average incomes, all the result of concentrated
3.10 government investment and research, combine to make Gezira production and expenditure profiles unlike those of other Sudan
3.13 regions."

204G Randall, Laura, "Labor Migration and Mexican Economic Development," Social and Econ. Studies, 11(1), March 1962: 73-81.

1.043 Mobility of factors is both a precondition and a concomitant of economic development. It can be demonstrated by an analysis of
3.02 factor mobility in a developing economy. This is done by examining the response of labor to economic opportunity as shown by
3.10 internal and external Mexican migration from 1940 to 1959 and by evaluating the effect of this migration on Mexican economic
5.10 development during this period. Labor migration tended to equalize wages between states. The result of this mobility was: (1) rapid urban growth, (2) increase in national income, (3) Mexico's opportunity to export her surplus labor as a commodity in international trade, (4) Mexican farm laborers in the United States, the "braceros" and (5) illegal entrance of ("wetback") Mexicans into the United States on temporary work permits. The effect of migration within Mexico varied by region. Mexico City acquired a large pool of labor with varied skills, and clearly benefitted. The hinterland, however, probably did not gain, due to a loss of skilled workers and an unfavorable age distribution.

Propositions

1.043 (1) The probability of successful economic development increases with increasing mobility of factors, and increasing factor
3.02 mobility accompanies economic development. (P. 73.)
Evidence: Examination (primarily historical but with
3.10 raw quantitative data) of the Mexican labor force, 1940-1959.
3.13

204H Adams, Inez and J. Masuoka, "Emerging Elites and Culture Change," Social and Econ. Studies, 10(1), March 1961: 86-92.

1.045 An attempt to develop a conceptual model for the study of elites, and problems emerging in multi-racial societies, using
5.01 Trinidad (with a mixture of Negro, East Indian, European, Chinese, Levantine, and Spanish-speaking peoples) as an example.
5.062 This approach necessitates the definition of concrete problems in such a society, the isolation of the various elites identified
5.064 with these problems, and the examination of the functional relationships between problems and elites. The role of the elite,
5.14 following S.F. Nadel's definition, is to compose statements of policy and programs for the solution of problems, which themselves may be of local or international magnitude and oriented toward a single ethnic group, or directed outwardly to wider communities. A diagrammatic model is presented, which shows the functional relationship of elites to both size and orientation of problems. The problem magnitudes are shown in a series of circles all tangent to a circle at a point of origin O, the biggest circle representing the largest problem, and the inner, progressively smaller circles representing lesser problems. A line perpendicular to O is drawn, bisecting the circles, by which problem magnitude can be measured and rank position of elites shown, and a horizontal line, drawn through the center of the largest circle and perpendicular to the first line, defines the direction of orientation of the problem; extension of the arc above the horizontal indicates outward orientation; below the line, inward orientation. In a discussion of various problems in Trinidad, this model is applied to the franchise, the labor and federation movement, and the teaching of Indian languages in schools.

Propositions

1.045 (1) The probability of cultural change is most greatly affected by the actions and interactions of elites. (P. 86.)
5.121 Evidence: Unsubstantiated assumption.

204I Edwards, D.T., "An Economic View of Agricultural Research in Jamaica," Social and Econ. Studies, 10(3), September 1961: 306-339.

1.041 This paper explores the supply of knowledge for the agriculture of a newly developing economy, Jamaica. Continuous investigation
4.02 into the island's agriculture has occurred over the past 180 years. In recent years, some of the producer's organizations have supplemented the government's research. Research has covered a large number of products, but, with the exception of the estate

production of sugar-cane, grossly insufficient information is available for the major products of Jamaican agriculture, due largely to the limited amount of research being conducted. The varied nature of the natural environment and of agriculture and the high variability of certain features of the natural environment provide formidable difficulties for research. An approach to determining an optimal volume of expenditure on research and to an appropriate strategy for selecting lines of research are outlined. The problem of applying the findings of research is briefly considered.

204J Lewis, W. Arthur, "Education and Economic Development," Social and Econ. Studies, 10(2), June 1961: 113-127.

6.14 This article discusses the role of education in the development of emerging nations. Emphasis is placed upon the necessity
6.16 of establishing educational priorities, the subject matter to be taught, educational standards, and organization of the educational process. Developing nations are urged to be selective in adopting patterns developed by and appropriate to mature economies.

Propositions

5.11 (1) If educated persons are highly priced relative to an economies national output, per head, then there is a tendency for
3.10 the educated not to be absorbed by the economy. (P. 114.)
Evidence: Unsubstantiated generalization from experience (especially West Africa).

5.13 (2) The probability of frustration and discontent increases if expectations are developed which are not fulfilled in reality. (P. 116.)
Evidence: Example of experience of primary school graduates in Africa.

3.13 (3) In less-developed countries, the probability of rapid increases in productivity is greatest if adults already employed
6.09 are trained. (P. 121.)
Evidence: Unsubstantiated assertion.

204K Singham, A.W., "Politics of the Developing Areas," Social and Econ. Studies, 10(3), September 1961: 364-370.

7.01 A critique of two significant studies which have recently
appeared regarding the politics of the developing areas: The
7.11 Politics of the Developing Areas (Princeton U. Press, 1961), by G.A. Almond and J.S. Coleman, and From Empire to Nation (Harvard U. Press, 1960), by R. Emerson. Both attempt the task of synthesizing a vast body of literature regarding the developing areas, and of constructing "models" for policical analysis, and both reveal a theoretical orientation. Almond's work covers 75 different countries, while Emerson is especially concerned with emerging Asian and African nations. (1) Almond recognizes the "culture-bound" character of western political analysis and proceeds to outline the major "universal" characterisitics of political systems which can be utilized to analyze political systems in both western and non-western areas: (a) all political systems have political structures, (b) the same functions are performed by all political systems, (c) all political structures are multi-functional, and (d) all political systems are mixed, in that they are not entirely modern or traditional. Almond then examines the functions performed by the political systems, using D. Easton's input-output analysis; the work closes with a chapter by Coleman on Sub-Saharan Africa, in which six political consequences resulting from the types of political systems found in South and South East Asia, Latin America, the Middle East, and Sub- Saharan Africa, are delineated. This taxonomy of political systems closes with Coleman's suggestive hypothesis (originally developed by S.M. Lipset), that there is a correlation between economic development and political competitiveness. (2) Emerson is interested in the rise of self assertion and nationalism in Asian and African peoples, seen as a reaction to colonial imperialism; nationalism is expertly analyzed, and the gap between elites and masses is pointed out.

204L Katzin, Margaret, "The Business of Higglering in Jamaica," Social and Econ. Studies, 9(3), September 1960: 297-331.

1.041 The paper describes and examines the economic efficiency of
the marketing system in Jamaica by which food grown on small
3.08 farms is distributed to the ultimate consumers. Eight kinds of "higglers" (middle men), who are nearly all women, are identified. Six sets of detailed weekly operating statements extending over more than one year in each case are analyzed. The conclusion reached is that "...under the conditions that obtain in Jamaica, the higglering system is a relatively efficient means of effecting the internal distribution of locally-grown produce."

204M Smith, M.G., "Education and Occupational Choice in Rural Jamaica," Social and Econ. Studies, 9(3), September 1960: 332-354.

1.041 The study shows how experience of an unsuitable education
system leads to occupational aspirations which cannot be satisfied
4.09 in the rural environment, or perhaps elsewhere, leading to
frustration and unemployment of the educated.
6.09

Propositions

1.041 (1) The probability that anomie will develop is increased if the
educational system fosters unrealistic expectations. Frustra-
5.13 tions result from an individual not being able to satisfy a
life goal. (P. 353.)
6.09 Evidence: Unsubstantiated assumption.

204N Blaut, James M., Ruth P. Blaut, Nan Harman, and Michael Moerman, "A Study of Cultural Determinants of Soil Erosion and Conservation in the Blue Mountains of Jamaica," Social and Econ. Studies, 8(4), December 1959: 403-420.

1.041 A progress report on research in a community in the Blue
Mountains of Jamaica in 1957-58, which seeks to determine cultural
4.10 mechanisms influencing "erosion-inducing" soil management behavior
which inhibit the acceptance of conservation measures. A history
4.12 and a description of present conservation methods and crops is
outlined. "Resistance to government-sponsored soil conservation
4.18 and agricultural improvement measures reflects an identification
of government" with "Administrative Party," and a transferred dislike for the former." Social, political and economic factors of resistance to adaptation of conservation measures are: (1) influence of community religious leaders (Catholic priest and lay teacher) is limited since they are not farmers; (2) local extension agents, though zealous, "have not been in the area long enough to have acquired the prestige...necessary for widespread adoption of their recommendations;" (3) women whose main economic function is marketing exert influence in favor of planting ground crops (marketed by women exclusively) rather than tree crops, which are more resistant to erosion: this is due to the pleasure derived from the marketing process which gives the women a chance "to get together with their friends;" (4) "the greater the emphasis on crops which women, rather than men, market, the larger the percentage of family income under the control of women;" (5) farmers are reluctant to plant tree crops on rented land, since the belief is that the "man who plants trees on another's land will not reap the benefit of his labor...;" and (6) the prevalent lack of capital prevents utilization of certain

conservation measures. However, most apparent was "the lack of perception of erosion, its causes, consequences, and control."

Propositions

1.041 4.10 (1) The probability that new techniques will be adopted increases if they are successfully adopted by local opinion leaders. (P. 418)

Evidence: Case study (non-quantitative) of a rural Jamaican community.

1.041 4.10 4.181 (2) The probability that new techniques will be adopted is affected by traditional social relationships which may support or impede innovation.

Evidence: Same as no. 1.

1.041 4.10 4.82 (3) The probability that new techniques will be adopted decreases if traditional beliefs preclude a rational understanding of the extant situation. (P. 420.)

Evidence: Same as no. 1.

205A Becker, R. J., "Problems of a Developing Agriculture Found in Surinam," Sci. Farmer, 11(3), Winter 1964: 6.

1.039 4.03 4.09 4.10 4.17 Since 1850, Surinam's agriculture has declined and is now primarily subsistence farming. Bauxite gives the economy a boost, but has employment opportunities for only a limited number of people. Methods to improve Surinam's economic position are listed.

206A Rosen, Bernard C., "The Achievement Syndrome and Economic Growth in Brazil," Social Forces, 42(3), March 1964: 341-354.

1.032

3.15

Economic growth can be explained in part in terms of psychological-social factors: (1) "achievement motivation" and (2) "achievement values." (1) orients the individual toward striving and competing; (2) organizes and directs his behavior toward attaining an achievement goal. This motive-value complex has been called the "achievement syndrome." Subjects "were four samples of boys and many of their mothers living in two cities in Brazil, and in several communities in the north-eastern section of the United States. The data were collected over an eight-month period during which the investigator traveled extensively throughout Brazil. The TAT was used to measure (1). The product moment correlation between two judges scoring the test varied between .84 and .92 for the samples. "Interviews and questionnaires were employed to obtain data on (2). Brazilian boys, on the average, were found to have far lower (1) scores than American boys of comparable age and social class. An examination of some aspects of the social structures and cultures of the two countries, and data obtained through observation and interviews, revealed that Brazilians are more fatalistic, place less emphasis on planning and the postponement of gratifications, put a lower evaluation on work, and are less willing to be mobile physically in order to take advantage of better job opportunities than is the case with Americans. These findings point to a definite association between level of economic development and the prevalence of the achievement syndrome. Whether this association is in fact a causal relationship, and to what extent the achievement syndrome interacts with other factors which affect economic growth in Brazil, remains problematic. The rigidity and hierarchical nature of the social system, political instability, illiteracy, disease--all may play a role in the development of Brazil's economy. Very likely they affect the conditions under which the achievement syndrome affects economic growth. Perhaps (1) and (2) produce vigorous economic activity only under specific conditions, such as a measure of free-enterprise capitalism, a certain type of open social structure, or a relatively advanced level of technology."

Propositions

1.032 (1) If the people of a country are characterized by high achievement values, then the probability of rapid economic growth
3.15 is increased. (P. 342.)

Evidence: Interviews and questionnaires.

1.032 (2) If a country characterized by a low level of need for economic
3.15 achievement is the recipient of large amounts of foreign
3.171 capital, then the effects of low achievement motivation will
3.172 be minimized. (P. 344.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

1.032 (3) If a country is rigidly stratified and authoritarian, then
it is probable that the people will be characterized by
3.15 passive attitudes and a low need for economic achievement.
(Pp. 347-348.)
5.062 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

1.032 (4) If a society is characterized by an authoritarian socialization
process with low employment levels as a coercive
3.15 factor, then there is a probability that the authoritarian
system will be disrupted when employment levels rise. (P.
7.13 349.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

1.032 (5) If a society is characterized by a strong familistic orientation,
then it is probable that this will inhibit economic
3.15 development. (P. 350.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.
5.061

1.032 (6) If a country is characterized by a toleration for conspicuous
consumption, then it is probable that capital formation and
3.03 economic development will be inhibited. (P. 352.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.
3.15

206B Driver, E.D., "Caste and Occupational Structure in Central India," *Social Forces* 41(1), October 1962: 26-31.

1.021 "Interview data lend little support to the view that the
caste system obstructs occupational change in India. Intergenerational
3.10 mobility is frequent among rural and urban castes,
but it is generally confined to occupations of similar rank.
5.062 Hence, mobility has a negligible effect upon the traditional
association between positions in the caste and occupational
hierarchies. This association is attributable to differences
among castes in educational attainment."

207A Reina, Mario, "Rising Socio-Economic Expectations Challenge Italy's Social Actionists," Soc. Order., 93(8), October 1963: 35-43.

1.06 5.09 5.16 Problems resulting from the change from the "old, semistatic society of the Italian rural community" to the fast industrializing society of modern Italy, are described. Catholics are asked to show responsibility in leading the moral transition accompanying this change-over. The reasons for Communist strength are analyzed, and a call for practical solutions to the problems of modern society, and a challenge to theologians, is presented.

Propositions

No propositions; this article is primarily concerned with policies of the Catholic Church both in Italy and elsewhere.

207B Hughes, John E., "Objectivity, Subjectivity, and Social Change," Soc. Order., 11(7), September 1961: 321-328.

5.063 5.05 5.09 A critique of E. Knight's The Objective Society, and G. Vickers' The Undirected Society. Knight's basic argument is based on the idea of "objectivity," or the "objective viewpoint," appearing with the rise of modern science and depending on a faith in some "reality" which exists independently of our subjective appreciation of it. This faith in the existence of an objective reality gives rise to the conception of a universe which obeys "natural laws" operating behind the appearance of things. However, scientific objectivity is a delusion, since all that we have is a subjective perception of objective reality, not the reality itself. Against this "false objectivity," Knight opposes the "subjective viewpoint," emphasizing the importance of man's "orientation" or "intention," i.e., the purposeful meaning which he gives to the world. In his argument Knight exhibits a definite failure to understand the nature of the scientific attitude, but his argument has a real and a significant point: that the natural scientific viewpoint does not seem to be a sufficient guide for dealing with the problems of human behavior, which is guided by man's subjective intentions, rather than by the objective realities of the world. However, it must be concluded that Knight offers very little that is new: his most important conception--that the purposeful perception we have of reality is the most important aspect of it for our behavior--is soundly entrenched in the literature of modern sociology and psychology. Vickers' The Undirected Society points out the obvious effects of rapid industrialization of human well-being. Standards for judging well-being appear to be of three types: of behavior, of need, and of want. They operate as norms by which men guide their behavior in reference to the purposes and intentions which they seek to realize. Both Vickers and Knight agree that human behavior is basically purposeful, and that this feature of human behavior must be taken into account when dealing with human problems. Both agree that human thought and action are designed to adapt man to his environment, but disagree concerning the purpose of the adaptation. Knight implies that human adaptation is basically meaningless, while Vickers views this process of adaptation as one through which man adapts himself and his environment in order to achieve purposes which stem from his "nature." Both agree as to the importance of the historical process by which man develops the conception of self which serves as his basic orientation toward reality and, hence, as a basis for his purposeful actions. Vickers, however, sees the human being as a man in history, while Knight, for all his existentialism, sees only history as real, and man as its product.

Propositions

No propositions.

207C Ewing, J. Franklin, "The Human Resource," Soc. Order, 8(9), November 1958: 419-425.

3.17 The problem of the accomodation of peoples and nations to one another is not a new one, but today its solution becomes
3.173 imperative. Since awareness of a given culture is so important for an understanding of its people, we must have a clear idea of
5.14 its meaning. Culture is what people do; it may be considered as a constellation of patterns of thought, action, and feeling.
5.022 Three essential features are: (a) culture as not only an historical but also a normative phenomenon, (b) cultural patterns as learned, and (c) cultural patterns as not simply cold blueprints for action, but emotionally charged. Present day cultures are changing, stimulated by culture contact or acculturation, and new cultural organizations are being produced. This process may result in: (1) complete or partial dualism, and (2) a pluralism, an arrangement which is likely to be true of certain segments of culture. Information as to the influences of cultural change is provided by anthropological studies in general and by the experience of various assistance teams, such as those of UNESCO, FAO, WHO, Point 4, etc. Intelligence, good will, and a firm conviction that the greatest resource of the world is its people are needed to facilitate adjustment to cultural change.

Propositions

No propositions.

207D Janssen, Leon H., "Duties to Underdeveloped Countries--A Symposium," Soc. Order, 8(5), May 1958: 193-254.

3.02 3.17 5.16

With an introduction by Edward Fuff, the basic argument is presented by Leon Janssen as follows: Statesmen, when admitting a duty to aid the economic growth of underdeveloped countries, are at best wont to concede the existence of obligations arising from contracts--treaties. Such agreements give rise to obligations but they neither exhaust nor originate such obligations; at bottom, these are founded on international social justice. There is an international community. The solidarity of this community is the basis of obligations of international social justice. This solidarity is the consequence of the common origin and destiny of all men, whatever be their race, nationality, or fortune. Compared with the consciousness of membership in the national community, this sense of belonging to an international community is feeble. As a result, the realization of obligations of international social justice is retarded and reluctant. Also, it is frequently argued that the real motives for aiding underdeveloped countries are not moral but economic and political. We need them as customers and as producers of raw materials. These pragmatic considerations are real but are not a firm basis for action. Further, it is argued that peoples of these underdeveloped countries are happier as they are. This patronizing conception of the happy savage cannot be allowed to blind us to the poverty, disease, ignorance, and starvation rampant among the underdeveloped countries. Aid to the less fortunate is a Christian moral imperative and can be specified in three principles: (1) the greater the need, the greater the obligation; (2) people who are nearer to us have a greater claim upon our help than others; and (3) help is to be proportional to its usefulness. We are all responsible to aid peoples of the world who cannot help themselves. Aid to the underdeveloped countries cannot be merely a passing gesture. International social justice requires the establishing of institutions, the creation of a stable social order where justice is independent of the whims of individual nations. The argument briefly characterized above is followed by Comments and Criticisms of eleven contributors. Colin Clark (Agricultural Economic Research Institute, University of Oxford, Great Britain) raises the question of the moral responsibilities of the countries receiving assistance. John M. Paul (Ethics Committee, Catholic Association for International Peace) adds a fundamental principle: all ownership and use of private property must be in harmony with the fact that the goods of the earth were intended for all the members of the human race. Thomas H. Mahony cautions that until there is some political authority crossing state lines, there can be no effective enforceable law based upon any alleged requirements of "international social justice." David Johnson (London School of Economics, Great Britain) adds that close economic cooperation between the richer countries is not possible until they learn how to establish their own mutual relations on a just basis. Philip S. Land (Gregorian University, Rome, Italy) doubts whether the emphasis upon "aid" in this area does not neglect the alternative of the "economic community." The more we emphasize economic community rather than aid, the more surely we will aid the underdeveloped countries. Paul Crane, (Editor, *Christian Democrat*) objects to Janssen's implication that conditional to the exercise of social justice between nations is a subjective attitude of each to the other. In his opinion, the economic relationship between countries is sufficient of itself to demand from those who are partners to it the exercise of social justice in each other's regard. Virgil Salera (American University, Washington, D.C.) argues that the obligation to aid underdeveloped countries is not independent of the way in which the help is used and the character of local efforts at self-help. Edward E. Swanstrom (Catholic Relief Services) emphasizes the role of voluntary agencies while accepting the basic obligation to help underdeveloped countries. James L. Vizzard, (National Catholic Rural Life Conference) points out that private ownership of property is always subordinated to the benefit of all men. Francesco M. Vito (Catholic University of the Sacred Heart, Milan, Italy) points out that an acceptance of a moral principle of aid to underdeveloped countries would require a revision of political and economic thought. Philippe Laurent (Institute of Social Studies of Paris, France) amplifies the argument by pointing out that the principle duty of the prosperous countries extends beyond immediate succor. Unless the root causes of underdevelopment are attacked, the need for relief will continue endlessly. Genuine assistance must consist in endowing the underdeveloped cuuntries with the means calculated to assure them that economic and social growth will progressively raise their standard of living and help to satisfy their needs.

Propositions

3.01 (1) If the rulers of a country are committed to what they regard as natural economic and social laws, then the rulers' be-
5.062 havior in conformity to these laws will determine the wages, food, and shelter of the lower classes. (P. 199.)
Evidence: Unsubstantiated generalization.

3.02 (2) If the vast majority of the population in a society lives at the subsistence level, then the only way to promote industrial-
3.17 ization without lowering the consumption level of the people is by economic and technological aid from abroad. (P. 202.)
Evidence: Unsubstantiated observation.

3.02 (3) If large, developed, industrial countries practice protection-
ism, then these high tariffs and regulations will probably
3.03 hinder the accumulation of needed capital for economic growth
by underdeveloped countries. (Pp. 218-219.)
3.16 Evidence: Unsubstantiated generalization.

3.16 (4) If a country that once had colonial status is granted inde-
pendence without the groundwork for political stability being
7.11 laid, then it is probable that foreign investments in the
country's economy will be inhibited. (P. 223.)
Evidence: Unsubstantiated observation.

3.02 (5) If agriculture is expanded on a basic, individual farm level
by non-capital intensive methods, then the resulting small
4.01 economic gains for each farmer will have a chain reaction
effect on the rest of the economy and eventually industriali-
zation will be promoted as a result of the farmers' ability
to purchase more goods. (P. 229.)
Evidence: Unsubstantiated generalization.

3.02 (6) If governments that recieve low-interest foreign aid loans
use the aid to build the economic goods producing institu-
3.06 tions that would normally be undertaken by private investors,
then economic development will be hindered, since private
3.17 investors must pay higher interest on loans. (Pp. 230-231.)
Evidence: Unsubstantiated suggestion.

3.01 (7) If two or more developed countries begin to lower their
interest rates on loans to a developing country in a competi-
3.04 tive way, then these low interest rates will promote the
entrance into economic-goods producing activities by the
developing country's government, thereby becoming unequal and
crippling competition to the growth of private enterprise.
Evidence: Unsubstantiated generalization.

207E Lewis, William H., and J. Bennet, "Social Change in Africa," Soc. Order, 8(8), October 1958: 387-393.

5.022 The causes of present day African unrest is the influence
upon the indigenous societies of the advanced technology of the
5.09 Western world. Africa is rushing upon the world stage in a frantic
effort to emulate the advanced Western nations. This is worthy
5,13 of study because: (1) it is bound to have a significant effect

5.14 upon the rest of the world, and (2) it contains a number of gross misconceptions. Africa's current encounter with the Western
1.01 world varies in depth, intensity, and results from one area of the continent to another. Yet studies of cultural change in Africa use standardized criteria in an attempt to depict the overall transformation. The criteria frequently employed to measure African "acculturation" or "accommodation"—population increase, urbanization, improvement of educational facilities, etc.—are cnnfused with accommodation itself, making the argument tautological. The criteria used to measure Westernization appear reasonable, yet are they realistic? When analysing and interpreting cultural diffusion in Africa, we must realize that we are isolating fragments of reality which appear in Western culture. When examining the present day clash of cultures in Africa, it is important to remember that we are dealing with acculturation as well as deculturation. While it is simpler to assume that opposing forces are operating in Africa, more rewarding results are achieved if emphasis is given to dynamic interaction, to the give and take of cultural contact. The process should not be unfamiliar to an American: it has occurred among the different ethnic groups residing in the United States. Contact with Western culture brings to the African a new experience—the total configuration of local institutions is often bent but not completely broken. Few men, African, European, or American, are capable of breaking with the past. Thus, we need a greater comprehension of the African scene and more empirical research.

Propositions

5.09 (1) If urbanism in developing countries is such that people from the countryside are grouped together in the cities according to the same criteria that separated them from other groups in the countryside, then the original tribalism will not be transformed into urbanism but will take forms that are basically tribal in an urban setting. (P. 389.)
Evidence: Observations of tribesmen in African cities.

5.061 (2) If marriages of people in developing countries are intra-tribal in nature, then this may inhibit the development of a
5.062 middle class. (P. 389.)
Evidence: Marriage statistics from the Belgium Congo.

208A Clinard, Marshall B., "The Sociologist and Social Change in Underdeveloped
Countries," Soc. Prob., 10(3), Winter 1963: 207-219.

1.021 This article is a discussion of the sociologist and social
action programs relating to an Indian action program in which the
5.01 author is a participant. The fear that the involvement of the
sociologist in action programs is intellectual "prostitution"
5.04 impedes the calling on sociologists as policy consultants. Also,
"despite elaborate theory building and preoccupation with quantitative
5.08 techniques which he feels will give him scientific
respectability, the sociologist has probably had less first-hand
experience with the actual data of his science than any other."
The author cites his involvement in urban community development as
a consultant to the Ford Foundation and the Delhi Municipal
Corporation, where change in a slum area is initiated through:
establishment of new goals, self help, small community leadership
groups, the creation of a new self image and prestige, and changed
status-image of slum women.

Propositions

1.021 (1) If the majority of people within a certain area of an underdeveloped
country are illiterate, then there is a probability
6.09 that they will tend to elect other illiterates to public
office. (P. 215.)
7.09 Evidence: Comparison of educational status of elected
public officials in various parts of India and the status
of literacy of their constituents.

1.021 (2) If a country is characterized by exclusive minority groups,
then there is a probability that some of these groups will
3.14 tend to excel in economic affairs. (P. 216.)
Evidence: Case history of Muslims in India.

5.064

208B Schnore, Leo F., "Social Problems in the Underdeveloped Areas: An
Ecological View," Soc. Prob., 8(3), Winter 1960-61: 182-201.

5.01 Social scientists assure us that the future course of today's
underdeveloped areas will differ from that followed by the West in
5.03 the past. The "ecological complex" (technology, population,
organization, environment) provides a guide to some of the salient
5.02 problems facing 66% of the world. Technologically, the underdeveloped
areas can borrow from the West, rather than waiting upon
5.06 indigenous development, but there are numerous organizational
resistances and a crude technological determinism is indefensible.
Population poses three problems: size, composition, and distribution.
Again, the barriers to family limitation and to wholesale

shifts in spatial patterns appear to be structural in nature. It is in the political sphere that organizational issues are paramount; clear alternatives to democracy are available in totalitarian styles of organization. The effective environment—that which is brought into compass by a given technology and organization—is not promising in many underdeveloped areas, but appropriate modes of exploitation appear to be possible. Most of the problems facing backward areas are non-economic in nature, and solutions are to be sought in adaptive structural change. Social scientists should be challenged by the rich possibilities for research into the problems facing these areas.

Propositions

5.07 (1) If culture-borrowing by an underdeveloped society from an advanced society takes place, then there is a probability
5.14 that factors that influence mortality will be the first to be accepted rather than factors that influence fertility. (P. 183.)
Evidence: Unsubstantiated generalization.

3.02 (2) If the elite of a developing country are used to quick returns on investments, then the probability of their con-
3.03 tributing to economic development is reduced. (P. 186.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.
3.15

3.02 (3) If the population pyramid of a developing country is characterized by a wide base of non-producers, then it is probable
3.10 that economic development will be retarded. (P. 187.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.
5.07

3.11 (4) If changes in technology and socio-political organization occur in a society, then changes in the form and function
5.061 of the family are likely to precipitate. (P. 189.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

208C Record, C. Wilson, "Negroes in the California Agriculture Labor Force," Soc. Prob., 6(4), Spring 1959: 354-361.

1.06 Despite the considerable pressure upon Negroes in California to migrate in search of work, including farm jobs, there is a
4.09 paucity of Negroes in California agriculture. The Negroes who entered California tended to enter and remain in the large cities.
5.064 Their reluctance to move was due to their growing political power

5.14 in the cities which they used to secure minimal welfare legislation and to open urban employment opportunities. Other factors which kept the Negroes away from agriculture was the hostility of the few older permanent Negro residents toward the new migratory farm workers and the hostility of the white communities in which Negro workers would have had to establish at least temporary residence. Moreover, the greatest growth of Negro population in California occurred after 1940, at which time there was little difficulty in obtaining employment in the urban centers. And after some years of urban residence and employment, the Negro worker "is more sophisticated, knowledgeable about the ways of city life, aware of his alternatives, racially conscious, and inclined to create and use resources of his own in pursuit of racial interests." Thus, with improvement in the economic and political position of the Negro, he is in an increasingly better position to resist attempts to force him into agricultural labor.

Propositions

No propositions

208D Rettig, Solomon, and Benjamin Pasamanick, "Changes in Moral Values over Three Decades, 1929-1958," Soc. Prob., 6(4), Spring 1959: 320-328.

1.06 A report of changes in moral judgments (right vs. wrong) of midwestern college seniors during 1929, 1939, 1949 and 1958.

5.122 Previous data over the first two decades, gathered by Crissman, were compared with data collected in 1958, using patterns of change (decline, increase, depression hump and fall, stability) in rank-order as the basis for comparison. The most significant change occurred with items which express the sanctity of the individual human life(suicide, mercy killing); these rose steeply in severity of judgment. Additional increases were observed in religious items and ideas involving voting irregularities. Items which express collective irresponsibility and which show violations on the part of business and industry (syndicated sinning) have become increasingly acceptable since 1929. Items which show stability over the years are pacifism, income tax evasion, extra-marital sex, and the use of birth control devices. Items which rise in severity of judgment shortly after the depression involve hero worship of gangsters, drunk driving, and living beyond one's means, and those which fell related to political irresponsibility and usury. It is inferred that the findings show increasing influence of the corporate system on college youth.

Propositions

1.06 (1) If a country progresses from an agrarian to an industrial
status, then there is a probability that traditional forms
3.01 of morality will be replaced by practical morality or
morality based on expedience. (P. 325.)
3.13 Evidence: Comparative analysis of responses of United
States college students to questionnaires over a thirty-
5.122 year period.

209A Enke, S., "Labor Supply, Total Land Rents, and Agricultural Output in Backward Countries," South Econ. J., 29(2), October 1962: 82-87.

4.04 This is a study of the relationships between the labor
supply, the system of land rents or land tenure, and the agri-
4.11 cultural output of "backward countries." Based on this study,
the author offers several conclusions; commercial farming,
4.14 higher minimum wages for labor, and a fixed amount rather than
a constant share of the crop for rent will produce greater
agricultural output.

210A Friedmann, John, "'The Acquisitive Urge': Comment," Soc. Res., 28 (2), Summer 1961: 218-223.

3.02 A critique of J.M. van der Kroef's discussion of the "acquisitive urge" as a problem in cultural change. The author argues
3.15 that the dualistic society resulting from the movement of some people in underdeveloped countries into the cities provides the
5.05 "ecological matrix" within which growth occurs, rather than retarding growth, as van der Kroef maintains. Moreover, "the pre-
5.112 sumed importance of an 'acquisitive urge' stems largely from the economist's identification of economic development with cumulative
5.14 growth in the gross product of the nation." But this pattern of development "is possible only for an elite of nations that have the requisite resources, skills, and organizational powers." It is suggested, therefore, that the Western pattern of cumulative growth need not be followed by all underdeveloped countries.

Propositions

3.15 (1) If (and even though) locally villagers behave in an economic manner, then it is not likely to be "decisive" for the
3.22 economic growth of a nation. (P. 220.)
Evidence: Assertion.

3.01 (2) If economic growth can be identified as a symbol of national identity and independence by the population, then the growth
3.02 rate will be increased (from what it would be if this condition were not satisfied). (P. 221.)
7.13 Evidence: None.

3.01 (3) If a population has an "acquisitive urge"--that is, they are motivated to acquire objects of or symbols of wealth indis-
3.02 criminately, then it does not necessarily follow that overall national economic growth rate will be increased. (P. 218.)
Evidence: None.

210B van der Kroef, Justus M., "The Acquisitive Urge: A Problem in Cultural Change," Soc. Res., 28 (1), Spring 1961: 37-59.

3.15 An examination of the factors in the development of acquisitive patterns of behavior in three West New Guinea and Indonesian
4.07 societies--the Mejbrat of the Lake Ajamaru area in West New Guinea, the Samin communities of Java, and the Batak of North Central
5.14 Sumatra. The Mejbrat exchange pattern, revolving around a variety

5.122 of cloths used in trade and in ceremonies, has created an overly
materialistic value orientation which made cultural innovation and
7.07 cultural change extremely difficult. Saminism in Java on the
other hand is a deliberate reaction to acquisitive individualism
7.16 introduced under the Western colonial aegis into Indonesian
society at the beginning of the twentieth century. Communal
7.21 values have been stressed which have made an ideological connection
with the program of the Indonesian Communist party. The dynamic
individualism and acquisitiveness of the Sumatran Batak is based
on a high degree of communal instability, the ceaseless bifurcation of village communities by dissatisfied individuals, and
long traditions of trade and entrepreneurship. The presence or
absence of an existing acquisitive mechanism in an underdeveloped
society would seem to be of considerable significance in directed
cultural change.

Propositions

3.02 (1) If economic development is to be achieved, then "a certain
amount" of acquisitiveness (desire for the material aspects
3.15 of the modernization process) must be present individually
or collectively. (P. 37.)
Evidence: Assertion.

1.024 (2) If genealogical relationships among an indigenous population
5.061 are ill-defined, then the development of acquisitiveness will
5.062 be enhanced by the opportunity for the establishment of
5.121 reciprocal relationships with a wider group of persons. (P.
5.14 58.)
Evidence: Case study of Mejbrat exchange system.

1.023 (3) If the social structure allows for a wide latitude of
individual assertiveness, ambition, and personal effort,
3.15 then the development of acquisitiveness will be enhanced.
Evidence: Case study of Batak society.

5.121

(4) If a society is typified by rigidity of class structure,
communal demands, and the pressure of a religious collectivist value system, then the development of acquisitiveness
will be impeded.
Evidence: Case study of the Samin movement of Java.

210C van der Kroef, Justua M., "Rejoinder," Soc. Res., 28 (2), Summer 1961: 223-224.

3.02 An answer to J. Friedmann's critique of the author's paper
on the acquisitiveness urge as a problem in cultural change. It
5.062 is here argued that while the dualistic society is the framework
within which growth has to occur, it does retard economic growth.
5.09 In the newly emerging independent states, "if national economic
development is even to get underway..., the manner in which these
5.111 diverse and often self-contained systems are to be linked together
and to become integrated must receive paramount consid-
5.14 eration." Moreover, Friedmann's contention that the urban
intelligentsia is more important than the ethnic groups in the
backwoods is denied.

Propositions

3.02 (1) If regional economic values are incorporated along with newer
more dynamic national values into a "rational" economy, then
3.15 economic growth will be retarded. (P. 223.)
Evidence: Speculation.

210D Karpat, K.H., "Social Effects of Farm Mechanization in Turkish Villages," Soc. Res., 27 (1), Spring 1960: 83-103.

3.11 The farm mechanization program started ten years ago still
affects and changes the Turkish social structure. It was the
4.10 turning point in the rural history of the country and provides
the basis for future large-scale socio-political developments.
4.17 Yet few field-studies have been undertaken to determine its
effects in the villages; this article is based on a study of
5.021 twenty villages in the Antalya province. There it may be said
that mechanization took place in ideal conditions, producing a
5.05 complex result. The village structure was not always understood
and the social effects of unplanned mass mechanization was not
5.124 envisioned. Mechanization was started on the basis of foreign
assistance without consideration of the potentialities of Turkey
5.14 to expand the process to all villages and to maintain it. Yet
the effects of the program will continue, having already started
7.09 reactions likely to affect the entire social and political life
of the country and to lead to diversification of village life. It
7.13 is a major aspect of the national drive for mechanization and
westernization.

Propositions.

7.07 (1) If a villager is receiving financial assistance, then he is
likely to politically support the party in power who is pro-
7.13 viding the assistance. (P. 99.)
Evidence: Non-quantitative study of political behavior
7.231 of Turkish villagers who were or were not receiving fin-
ancial aid.

4.10 (2) If mechanization is introduced into a village, then social
differentiation will not only be speeded up but will be
5.05 based upon exclusively material forms. (P. 103.)
Evidence: Study of effects of mechanization in selected
5.062 Turkish villages--non-quantitative.

211A Raychaudhuri, S. P., and R. S. Murthy, "Land Classification for Agricultural Development; A Brief Review of the Work Done in Different Countries," *Soils and Fert.*, 23(4), August 1960: 235 235-240.

4.12 This is a review of the work done in land classification in various countries. Land utilization, land type, and improvements in land use are some of the aspects dealt with. For each country treated, there is an abstract of the work done or being done in land classification for agricultural development.

212A DeForest, J.D., "Low Levels of Technology and Economic Development Prospects," Soc. Sci., 38(3), June 1963: 131-139.

3.02 A discussion of technology (the "level of productive arts") as a potential impediment to economic development. Three stages
3.11 in the growth of knowledge can be delineated: (1) preliterate; (2) writing without scientific method; and (3) the era of the
3.111 scientific method. The underdeveloped areas have not yet reached level (3), and in order for its attainment, "visible change in
3.112 the existing social pattern will be mandatory." The "poor" countries do not have facilities to carry on "pure" scientific research, but applied research efforts of industrial nations can be borrowed, along with the realization that a need exists for initiation of applied research in the areas themselves. Local research is needed to tackle unique problems, to train local personnel, and to foster inventive attitudes in tradition-bound societies. Resistance to innovation is encountered on the level of mass cooperation and in inappropriateness of "modern" techniques to existing methods, which, though inefficient, "have worked to sustain life" in the area. Resistance also occurs when innovation runs counter to traditional habits or customs in addition to perceived jeopardization of the self-interest of certain groups. However, it is noted that there will necessarily be some alteration of traditional value structures as a result of development. "It is especially important...that techniques be adopted [which] will not be outmoded soon after their implementation."

Propositions

3.173 (1) If a technologically developed country that gives aid to an underdeveloped country is characterized by a desire to achieve engineering excellence and tends to use the latest euuipment, then it is probable that its foreign aid program will not be at a level of maximum effectiveness. (P. 131.)
Evidence: Unsubstantiated generalization.

3.173 (2) If on-the-spot research centers are set up to interpret ad-
6.07 dance technology into terms and forms suitable for newly developing countries, then it is probable that the effectiveness of foreign aid will be increased (Pp.134-135.)
5.14 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

212B Muller, Henry M., "Japan in Transition," Soc. Sci., 39(4), October 1963: 213-217.

1.025 Demographically, Japan has succeeded in nearly balancing the
equation of births and deaths, to reduce the trend toward in-
7.01 creasing overpopulation. Creating a Japan similar to the image of
the United States succeeded only through the conscientious efforts
6.14 of United States officials and the sincere desire of most Japanese
to cooperate. On the political front the Japanese emperor re-
5.11 nounced his divinity and became a symbol of the state. This
greatly facilitated the creation of a more democratic government,
5.12 such as in known in the West. Economically, Japan has made an
unparalleled recovery, with the possible exception of Western
3.05 Germany. As a result, higher wages and better working conditions
have raised the standard of living immeasurably. Educational
7.15 reforms and the stress on learning have had both positive and
negative results. The improved status of women in Japan, changes
in the traditional family, and the impact of radio and television
as media of communication have not always been an unmixed blessing
in the efforts of Japan to integrate or blend the new with the
established. These are just a few of the problems besetting the
Japanese in their efforts to reestablish themselves in their own
esteem and in the eyes of other nations.

Propositions

No propositions.

212C Williams, Benjamin H., "Views on Social Science: Some Political Effects of Social Change," Soc. Sci., 38(3), June 1963: 148-150.

1.06 Some guidance with reference to the evolution of governmental
functions can be obtained from the statistics of population
5.09 changes. The laissez faire concept of government in the United
States after the Revolution and through the nineteenth century
5.13 fitted a rural society. The rise of cities, however, has been
accompanied by a growth in governmental regulation. City dwellers
7.11 depend on government for the avoidance of depressions, sanitation,
public works, slum clearance, unemployment insurance, old age
assistance, minimum wage laws, and various forms of relief. The
effect of the growth of cities on United States can be seen in the
shifting of voter support between the major political parties. In
the 1896 election, when the United States was about 38 percent
urban, the Republicans carried the industrial Northeast. City
populations were then willing to follow the lead of the conserva-
tive industrialists. By 1960, the Democrats had become the party
most generally regarded as concerned with the requirements of the
urban people, who constituted about 70 percent of the population.

Thus, major shifts in population have set up compelling tendencies for changes in political conflicts and governmental functions.

Propositions

No propositions.

213A "Southern African Regional Committee for the Conservation and Utilization of the Soil: Report of the Sub-Committee on Extension Methods in African Areas," Sols Africains, 5, 1960: 185-194.

1.01 The report is based on information from Angola, Basutoland, Bechuanaland, the Belgian Congo, Northern Rhodesia, Southern

4.12 Rhodesia, Nyasaland, South Africa, Swaziland, and Mozambique. It covers the following topics: (1) background information,

6.02 including the nature and size of the problem; (2) organization and facilities available for agricultural extension; (2) the

6.08 approach to extension in African areas; (4) extension methods, such as the spoken word, demonstration, audio-visual aids, the

6.10 printed word, competitions, betterment schemes, settlement schemes, regional planning, and formal agricultural education; and (5) general considerations.

214A John, P.V., "Changing Pattern of Leadership in a Village in Madhya Pradesh," *Sociol. Bulletin*, 12 (1), March 1963: 32-38.

1.021 This study examines caste composition and change of leadership
in a village situated in Jabalpur district. It is found that,
4.14 irrespective of caste, the most important village occupation is
cultivation, and for this reason socio-economic relations were
5.062 allied to landholding status. The landlord, or malguzar, a Brahmin,
was the leader in all socio-economic matters. This has
7.02 changed with land reform, which has given many peasants landholding
status and has divested the malguzars of their power,
7.21 though they are still the rent collectors.

214B Bulsara, Jal F., "Nature and Extent of Social Change in Rural Society," *Sociol. Bulletin*, 11 (1/2), March/September 1962: 166-172.

1.021 This article is a discussion of the slowness of social change
in rural India, pointing out that social transformation depends on
4.17 various factors such as wide-spread education, enlightened and
dynamic leadership, production and spread of stirring literature,
5.04 clash of cultures, impact of ideas, and to some extent extensive
economic transformation. Needed to accelerate the beneficial
5.08 social change are: a reasonably good system of communications to
heighten contacts and mobility, re-grouping and re-siting of
6.16 isolated villages so that minimum civic services could become
economically viable for them, a system of education which would
render it possible to apply science and technology to the improvement
of agriculture, stock-breeding, dairying, and rural arts,
crafts, and industries, and the orientation of a state policy which
acknowledges that rural and urban populations are two parts of the
self-same integrated polity, and should, therefore, receive equal
attention and treatment as regards provision of civic services,
standards of living, and equality of opportunities for social and
cultural development.

214C Panchanadikar, J.M., "Indian Rural Society under the Impact of Planned Development," *Sociol. Bulletin*, 11 (1/2), March/September 1962: 173-198.

1.021 This is an examination of some of the implications of planned
development in India, analyzing community development programs.
3.14 The latter are viewed as neglecting the region and treating the
village "as an abstraction rather than a social reality". Interaction
5.08 processes between national leaders, bureaucracy, villagers,

7.233 and village leaders are examined. It is noted that their perception of planned change and of each other motivates or hampers fulfilment of goals. The problem of leadership in rural areas is seen as one of the rising small entrepreneurial class which would consolidate with the setting up of the Panchayat raj. A lag exists between planned development through legislative measures and existing rural society, which absorbs and modifies anticipated changes to suit itself and thus slows down progress.

214D Kapadia, K.M., "A Perspective Necessary for the Study of Social Change in India," Sociol. Bulletin, 6 (1), March 1957: 43-60.

1.021 5.06 5.122 5.123 The attitude toward a change in the social problem has a bearing on the general problem of social change in India. From the study of the changes in the social problems, such as widow-remarriage, the practice of bigamy and employment of women, it has been observed that the comparative freedom of women today is allowed to them as concessions because of the pressure of circumstances and not as a right. An emotional and not a rational approach is taken even by the educated classes. There is as yet no feeling that the privileges of men and disabilities of women are against the ideals of democracy. The dominance of the old norms is observed everywhere, even in the pleadings of the reformists, who advocate reform not so much as an appeal to reason, but as an appeal to the old ideology. The rationalistic values have failed to replace the old ideology. There is a great need to cover this lag between the old ideology and the progressive environment.

Propositions

1.021 5.122 - 5.123 (1) In a society where the old norms discriminate against a particular group (e.g., women), there will be a lag between the old ideology and the new, more rational environment, even when the reformers base their appeals upon the old ideology.

Evidence: Personal observation and speculation.

215A Zelinsky, Wilbur, "Rural Population Dynamics as an Index to Social and Economic Development: A Geographic Overview, Sociol. Quart., 4(2), Spring 1963: 99-121.

3.01 This is an exploratory probe of the simple proposition that
as a community progresses to and past a moderately advanced stage
3.02 of economic and social development, the absolute size of its "basic
rural" (or "landward") population will stabilise after an initial
5.07 period of growth, and then begin to decline. If valid, this
hypothesis could be useful in charting the chronology, extent,
5.09 and a real pattern of socio-economic development in those areas
for which the necessary data are available. The greatest difficulty in either testing or applying the hypothesis is the shortcomings of statistics on rural population both nationally and internationally. "Basic rural" population consists of the primary rural population engaged in primary economic production, and the secondary rural population who subsist by servicing the first group. In most national statistical series, this basic rural group is confused with spuriously rural persons(those who should be reported as urban), and the adventitiously rural (those with dispersed rural residence but urban function and outlook). Is the considerable effort required to disentangle these two disparate groups worthwhile? An analysis of time series on gross rural numbers for various "advanced" countries, for periods varying from 40 to nearly 200 years, indicates a meaningful correlation between the date and velocity of socio-economic development on the one hand, and the onset and pace of absolute rural decline on the other. Furthermore, a tabulation of 57 countries at all stages of socio-economic development, setting forth size of rural population according to the most recent pair of censuses or estimates, also indicates strong inverse correlation between developmental status and rural population change. A review of the literature analyzing internal patterns of rural change within individual countries strongly suggests that the hypothesis is also valid for documenting regional variation in socio-economic achievement. And, finally, within nations that can be classified as plural societies, it is shown that the rural dynamics of the various communities do differ drastically. It is concluded that further refinement and application of this foruula would be justifiable and profitable.

Propositions

3.02 (1) If a country experiences economic modernization,then there is
a probability that its rural population will stabalize after
5.07 an initial period of growth and then begin to decline. (P. 99.)
Evidence: Generalization from population trends in developing and developed countries.

216A Curle, Adam, "Tradition, Development, and Planning," Sociological Review, 8 (2), December 1960: 223-238.

1.022 The societies of the tribal areas of Pakistan and Baltisan are
highly traditional and backward technologically, and the planner is
7.22 constantly faced with the problem that the virtues of tradition
are of a different order from those of development. Several
5.04 examples of the conflict between tradition and planning are given:
the building of a dam which would dispossess the Chakma tribe; the
5.06 development of agriculture among the Pathan; the pacification of the
warrior Hunza; reorganization among the Antral, and the irrigation
5.111 of the Kalat area. The work of the anthropologist or sociologist
can be of the greatest importance in guiding those responsible for
5.121 planning the development of traditional societies. A society will
accept or reject or be disrupted by social and economic change
5.08 because of qualities residing in customary law, in the kinship
structure, in the sanctions, duties, obligations and rights which
govern the relationships of individuals of different age, sex,
status, and the attitudes of parents towards their children. Thus,
it is important that the traditional societies should participate
actively, not only in the execution but also in the planning of
their own development. The problem of development and tradition,
of the contrasting claims of progress and stability, can be most
effectively solved within the context of community development,
the medium best suited for expressing the needs of the traditional
community in a form which is consistent both with the social and
material needs of the group. The relationship between tradition
and development is as various and as complex as human societies
and the personalities that grew up in them; it is mistaken to think
in terms of clear dichotomies and absolute antitheses. Development
planned and executed with insight and in conjunction with the
communities concerned should aim to harmonise the forces making
for stability and growth.

Propositions

5.14 (1) If a society develops in isolation and its institutions have not
developed very much, then the probability that contact with
5.13 alien societies will produce disruption is increased. (P. 227.)
Evidence: Historical treatment of tribal contact with
European and Indian civilization in India.

3.11 (2) If innovations are introduced on the territorial boundary of a
society, then the probability of their acceptance may be
5.14 increased.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

5.03 (3) The probability that a group will feel that change has been
forced upon them will be reduced if change is initiated and
5.14 controlled on the local level.
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

216B Jackson, J.N., "Some Social and Economic Forces which Influence the Pattern and Intensity of Land Use," *Sociological Review*, 6 (2), December 1958: 207-228.

1.06 An appraisal of the social and economic factors which affect
the pattern of land use where the powers of control operate at a
5.09 national level, and the implications for the local environment.
The complex, interlocking chain of cause and effect must be understood
5.10 before the formulation of planning decisions. National
forces depend upon loan conditions of building societies, national
5.13 fiscal policy, provisions of Town and Country Planning Acts of
1947 and 1954, government grants, government departments and boards--
7.23 though there is no information about inderdepartmental discussions
to avoid incompatibilities. There are also supra-national forces
7.20 at work: the Suez crisis; industrial competition from abroad;
immigration of West Indians. At a local level there are: size of
the population, employment and industrial structure, houses, real
estate market, and less tangible and subjective social determinants,
such as ideas about residential segregation. Neighborhoods
are never questioned, nor sociologists called in to advise. All
these factors must be understood if land use control is to be
beneficial. Land use planners should not compartmentalize the
operative forces into isolated studies to give weight to all factors.
This requires research to provide a cumulative body of practical
knowledge and thus create responsible development.

Propositions

No propositions.

217A Goodwin, Leonard, "Science, History, and Social Change: Toward A Program of Research," Sociol. Soc. Res., 49 (2), Jauuary 1965: 129-142.

5.01 Part of the design involves the formulation, by scientists and citizens, of models and hypotheses about social changes. The hypotheses permit predictions of what will happen if certain variables are affected and so yield potential implications for action. These predictions and implicatoons, however, are at a high level of abstraction, referring to relationships among classes of events rather than to concrete events themselves. It is necessary, therefore, to have an historical account which relates these abstract formulations to a concrete program of activity that persons might undertake. Another limitation of scientific predictions is that they are derived from models which conceptualize only limited sets of relationships among limited classes of events. Under conditions of rapid change, certain events not conceptualized in the model often enter the situation and upset predictions. The successes and failures of scientific predictions can be traced through a continuing historical account, with the account simultaneously pointing up the further variables and relationships which need to be considered in the scientific models. In order to test whether the variables or relationships revealed in one historical account are of continuing significance, it is necessary to compare it with other historical accounts of similar situations. This kind of study also permits inductive predictions that can be used where scientific hypotheses have not yet been developed. Predictions from comparative studies, based on past experience, are very limited when past conditions are changing in novel ways. Scientific, historical and natural history knowledge can help guide action, but cannot guarantee its success. To the extent that the results of action are not completely predictable (guaranteed), action becomes a probe of the yet unknown potentialities of social development. Such a probe is most useful when, as part of a research design, it tests the knowledge we have and contributes to further knowledge about guidance of social change.

217B Evan, W.M., "Law and the Emergence of Formal Organization," Sociol. Soc. Res., 48 (3), April 1964: 270-280.

5.01 The emergence of private formal organizations following the enactments of a law is identified as a latent function of law.
5.022 The organizations that emerge may be either functional or dysfunctional relative to the law that brings them about. The
7.05 attributes of a law that generate an organizational response are:

5.18 (a) the values embedded in it; (b) the efficiency of its enforcement provisions, and (c) the social units it affects. Organizations with dysfunctional consequences for a law face the problem of establishing their legitimacy in the local community. The analysis of this problem is in terms of organization goals, the means used to achieve the goals, and the organizational leadership. The analysis points to the potential utility of studying the relationship between law and formal organizations and the role of law as a complex mechanism in a modern theory of social change.

217C Catapusan, Bencio T., "Philippines: The Mirror of Democracy," Sociol. Soc. Res., 46 (4), July 1962: 446-454.

1.026 A community survey undertaken jointly by the United States and
the Philippine government in 1951, revealed that the Philippine's
4.14 most urgent problems were the lag in farming methods, small farms
allotment per family, low income, unemployment, landlessness,
4.16 scarcity of credit, malnutrition, inadequate education, decreasing
soil fertility, and weak local government. The socio-economic
4.17 reform, started in 1952, has had to concentrate into the reshaping
of a democratic way of life, and into restoring the confidence of
the malcontented, largely communist rural population. Many of
the reforms are still in progress: (1) land was given to the
former communists, who swore a loyalty oath to the new government,
(2) land has been distributed to about 85,000 families, along with
essential needs for resettlement, (3) land expropriations have
been used to help the small farmers, (4) power development aims
to supply 310,000 domestic kilowatt hours to satisfy the country's
needs, (5) credit facilities, especially to low-income agricultural
population, have been created through farmers' cooperative
banks, (6) private individuals have been authorized to organize
themselves into tax-free rural banking corporations, (7) industrialization
is supported by the government, and (8) local
community development has been encouraged by special government-supported
projects.

Propositions

1.026- (1) If an insurrectionist political minority is "treated well" by
the government (that is, offered rewards and positively
-7.12 reinforced for acts loyal to the regime) rather than "hunted
down" (threatened with negative sanctions), then the minority
-7.13 is more likely to become loyal to the government. (P. 447.)
Evidence: Philippine efforts to stem the Communist
7.233 tide by offering them land and government loans.

1.026 (2) If the population's economic insecurities are lessened, then the potential for insurrection is lessened. (P. 448.)
5.13 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

7.12

7.233

1.026 (3) If the threat of negative sanctions by the government looms as
a possible outcome of unresolved conflict, then landlords and
5.13 tenants (employers, workers, etc.) are more likely to resolve
conflicts.
7.12 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

7.233

217D Lystad, Mary H., "Institutionalize Planning for Social Change," Sociol. Soc. Res., 44 (3), January-February 1960: 165-171.

1.06 This research was concerned with resistance to social changes
that are precipitated by scientific finds in the field of social
5.04 work. A community welfare organization, whose purpose is to plan
for change in this field, was studied over one-year. A content
5.111 analysis was made of the minutes of all 192 committee meetings
during that year. Attitude questionnaires were given to the nine
staff members and 449 lay community participants in this activity.
This organization is the central planning body for 83 health, welfare, and recreation agencies in a city of over 500,000 population.
It was found that those functions of the organization which
directly involve initiation of community changes, i.e., planning
functions, were less frequently engaged in than those functions
which primarily set the stage for overcoming resistance to change,
i.e., public relations functions. It was also found that
committee members, who, by virtue of their higher social status
in the community, and who have more vested interests in the status
quo, were less in favor of such planning activities than were the
professional social work staff members. This study of institutionalized change emanating from scientific advances points out the
presence of resistance to change even among persons already
committed to planning for it.

Propositions

5.111 (1) Persons with high social status in a community and vested interests in the status quo are more likely to be uninterested in change or opposed to change than those for whom there is

little to lose (study of a community welfare organization).
Evidence: Attitude questionnaire administered to social workers.

217E Owen, John E., "Cooperatives in Pakistan," Sociol. Soc. Res., 44 (4), March-April 1960: 250-256.

1.022 **A concise survey of the Pakistani cooperative movement in**
terms of its history, present organization, economic status, and
4.05 **problems. Interviews, direct observation of activities, and a**
critical review of relevant literature were used to identify the
4.17 **factors responsible for the movement's failure to gain widespread**
national acceptance and economic strength. Since the birth of
5.07 **the first cooperative societies in 1904, the expansion was only**
gradual and was seriously affected by the depression in the 1930s. During World War II there were significant economical and membership gains, but with the partition of India in 1947, the system of cooperative financing and crop transportation was disrupted. Factors conducive to the relative failure of the movement were the loss of Hindu leadership, illiteracy, bureaucratic methods, agricultural poverty, the landholding moneylender system, and lack of credit facilities. Pakistan has currently 30,000 agricultural societies with a membership of 1,250,000; cooperative societies are divided into Primary Credit Societies, Central Banks, and Provincial Banks. Noncredit societies have almost 3,000,000 members. West Pakistan has about 200 farming societies, 600 cooperative weaving groups, and 2,000 cottage industry societies. The problems of the movement at present are rooted in national poverty, primitive farming methods, heavy population pressure, lack of training in cooperative ideology, and poor rural leadership. Recent promising developments have seen increasing official interest since 1958 and the establishment of voluntary institutions to train leaders in the movement.

Propositions

1.022 **(1) If new cooperatives in developing countries receive and dis-**
tribute products whose value fluctuates with world market con-
3.16 **ditions, then the probability of cooperatives becoming perma-**
nent institutions in these countries is dependent upon extended,
4.07 **favorable economic conditions on a world wide basis. (P. 252.)**
Evidence: Case history of Pakistan's cooperatives.
4.17

1.022 (2) If the standard of living is at the subsistance level in an
underdeveloped country, then the probability that an adequate
4.03 amount of capital can be collected for the formation of cooperatives
is unlikely. (P. 254.)
4.11 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

217F Shah, Khalida and John B. Edlefsen, "Social Change in Pakistan," Sociol. Soc. Res., 44 (3), January-February 1960: 191-199.

1.022 Although civilization in Pakistan dates back more than
4,000 years, the country has been independent a relatively short
4.14 time since the Muslim and British dominations. Immediately after
the independence declaration in August 1947, the country was confronted
5.108 with a variety of serious socio-economic problems, like
the resettlement of seven million refugees, iliteracy, injustice
5.10 in land ownership, inadequate methods in agriculture, the suppressed
status of women, and the old customs and traditions
5.111 hindering normal development. Within ten years the picture has
changed; a number of government-supported programs has been
carried through to remove the most visible defects in the economy,
and the Land Reforms Commission has introduced improvements in
rural areas. The number of students at the secondary schools
rose from 900,000 to 1,500,000, and at the University level from
36,000 to 77,000. The rehabilitation of refugees is nearly completed,
and the effective Village AID Training Institutes for
training village level workers send skilled men and women to
demonstrate modern scientific methods to more than 14,000
villages. The growth in social awareness has gradually ended such
old traditions as the caste system, Pardah (strict seclusion of
women), and the joint family system. As many of these interactional
situations are undergoing changes, the future is likely
to bring a more secularized type of structure like the modern
Euro-American societies with their concomitant values.

Propositions

No propositions.

217G Ogburn, William F., "Social Trends," Sociol. Soc. Res., 42 (1), September 1957: 3-9/

5.01 "Social trends" has recently come into our scientific and popular vocabulary. Originally the word "trend" meant the direction which a river takes. Later it was used to designate the course which events take. But before the term came into its present-day usage, the idea was expressed by other words. One such expression was social movements (woman-suffrage, trade-union, etc.). The more general word "history" sometimes meant trends (the history of prison reform), though such a history may have emphasized persons and events to the neglect of trends. For a time sociologists called such a history "natural history", thus deemphasizing heroes and great events and stressing processes. Again the word "evolution" described trends (the evolution of the family), but it implied more in that it carried the suggestion of improvement. Thus the phenomenon of social trends has had various expressions to designate it. Is the term "social trends" an improvement over these older terms, or is it merely another label? In several ways it is a better term. It is more precise and less general, which makes it better fitted for scientific usage as is demonstrated. The meaning for us is described: (1) knowledge of social trends indicates that there is much stability in society, though there be periods of great and rapid social change; (2) there is a sort of inevitability about social trends. Inevitability is perhaps too strong a word. Yet evidence indicates that an individual is not likely by his own effort to change the direction of a social trend quickly nor very much. Although it may be slowed, but generally a social trend continues on its course. Success is more likely to come to those who work for and with a social trend than to those who work against it. There is, for instance, a trend toward nationalism in Asia and in Africa. Success is more likely to come to Russia if she works with this trend than to the colonial powers of Europe that work against it. The same lesson should be heeded by city and national planners.

Propositions

5.01 (1) If a series of social events maintains the same general direction over a given amount of time, then that direction is not likely to be changed sharply and probably will be maintained.

Evidence: Selected examples from birth rates, temperature, automobile accidents, nationalism, etc.

218A Gerlach, Luther P., "Traders on Bicycle: A Study of Entrepreneurship and Culture Change among the Digo and Duruma of Kenya," Sociologus, 13 (1), 1963: 32-49.

1.016 Even among populations of a technically-economically under-
developed culture, there are talented individual enterprisers, who
3.14 are often important agents of economic and cultural change. This fact is theoretically recognized, though neither scientifically established nor properly valued. An example of such entrepreneurship is found among the Digo and Duruma of Kenya. It is felt that repercussions of their actions are felt in the general economy and in specific areas of social and intellectual life. This positive function of native entrepreneurihip has up to now not been kept in mind in official planning. It is concluded that this might lead to economic miscalculations, as well as to an intensification of existing racial-political conflicts among Africans, Indians, and Arabs in Kenya.

Propositions

1.016 (1) If, in developing countries, a man who becomes wealthy is expected to share his wealth with relatives and neighbors,
3.14 then individual entrepreneurship and the country's economic development will be inhibited. (P. 34.)
Evidence: Case history of entrepreneurs in Digo and Duruma tribes, Kenya.

1.016 (2) If local customs in developing countries inhibit economic development, then these customs may be modified or changed, in
3.14 some cases, through their manipulation by local entrepreneurs. (Pp. 34-35.)
5.112 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

1.016 (3) If would-be or new entrepreneurs in developing countries are not familiar with the principles of marketing and the money
3.14 economy, then individual entrepreneurship and the development of the country's economy will be inhibited. (P. 39.)
3.08 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

1.016 (4) If one or several individual entrepreneurs in a developing country can become successful, then it is probable that a
3.14 chain reaction of imitators will follow. (P. 40.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

1.016 (5) If tribes in underdeveloped countries are characterized by
inter-tribal competitiveness, then it is probable that this
5.121 can be used as a spur to education and individual and tribal
advancement. (P. 42.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

1.016 (6) If government tax policy or other policies are such that
entrepreneurs view government with distrust, then it is
3.14 probable that government will have a very poor knowledge of the
extent of entrepreneurial activities. (P. 45.)
7.231 Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

1.016 (7) If government supports only the larger enterprises, then this
may function to hinder the spread and growth of small economic
7.231 enterprises. (Pp. 45-48.)
Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

218B Manndorff, Hans, "Probleme Bei Der Einfuehrung Der Staatlichen Verwaltung Unter Den Bergstaemmen Von Nordthailand," (Problems Concerning the Introduction of State Administration for the Mountain Tribes of Northern Thailand), Sociologus, 13 (1), 1963: 15-31.

1.027 Recent efforts to draw the mountain tribes of Northern Thailand
more closely into the realm of governmental control have been beset
5.121 with a number of problems. The principal aims, to end the pre-
vailing, economically harmful slash-and-burn cultivation, and to
7.22 settle the population down in fixed locations, seem fully justified,
as are attempts to suppress the illegal opium trade common in those regions. On the other hand, the social-cultural situation of the tribes must be taken into account. The Thailand government and UNESCO sponsored an eight month field study to get a base for decisions from systematic first-hand observations. The results show that there exist, in the traditional social organization and elsewhere, certain characteristics potentially favorable for the desired programs. This means that there is a real chance to succeed with a minimum of serious difficulties, if hasty perfectionistic measures are avoided and the steps to be taken are carefully considered.

Propositions

1.027 (1) If administrators of developmental programs in underdeveloped areas have a perfectionist attitude or are firmly committed

5.04 to one narrow plan without having compromise built into their
program, then the probability of producing a successful
7.232 program is diminished. (P. 31.)
Evidence: Case history of problems of changing methods of agriculture among mountain tribes of Thailand.

218C Fischer, Hans, "Some Linguistic Indications of Culture Change in New Guinea," Sociologus, 12 (2), 1962: 18-36.

1.051 Data from four indigenous communities, ordered along a scale
ranging from poles of medium acculturation,and little culture
5.01 contact, are presented. Fifty material objects of European ori-
gin were presented to ascertain whether loan-words have been
5.14 introduced to describe them, or whether words from the native
vocabulary are applied. It is suggested that newly invented
descriptive terms based on the vernacular are used more fre-
quently by those in the earlier stages of culture contact.
Borrowing of words appears to be an indication of more advanced
stages of culture contact.

Propositions

1.050 (1) If a primitive culture experiences culture contact with a more
advanced society, then it is probable that at first the
5.14 primitive culture will use its own vocabulary to describe the
innovations and then later start borrowing words from the donor
culture. (P. 36.)
Evidence: Analysis of vocabulary of native cultures to see if they use their own or borrowed words to describe innovations from other cultures.

218D Mylius, Norbert, "Einige Beobachtungen Ueber Das Gegenwaertige Batikgewerbe In Java," (Some Observations of the Present Batik Industry in Java), Sociologus, 12 (2), 1962: 1670174.

1.023 Batik textiles (material specially dyed and patterned) were
available only to the upper classes in nineteenth century Java.
3.11 When demand for it increased, the original hand process was
mechanized, and became the Tjap method. Handmade batik is still
available only to upper classes. The organization of Batik enter-
prises was modernized through the founding of the 'Koperasi', a
kind of cooperative of Batik enterprisers which purchases raw
materials, provides for the education of workers' children, etc.

Many owners are members of the Chinese minority group in Java. Workers in the industry are well paid and valued by the popuation, a fact especially noteworthy because most of them are unskilled. The Indonesian government, valuing the batik industry both economically and aesthetically, encourages it through scientific research and education.

Propositions

No propositions.

218E Beuchelt, Eno, "Traditional and Modern Education of Youth in Western Sudan," Sociologus, 11 (2), 1961: 147-160.

1.017
6.01
The Bambara of Segou, a farming population in the region of the Upper Niger, show the connection of historico-cultural changes with changes in youth education. They experienced three great influences of external origin: the Mali Empire, Islamization, and French colonization. This meant progressive weakening of the traditional education with its strongly formalized, authoritative upbringing of the succeeding generations covering nearly every possible aspect of social life. Nowadays, under the additional impact of modern methods, this development has led to a certain general lack of educational orientation. To meet the need of a new integration of education, fitting the present situation, is one of the most important problems in the now-independent country.

Propositions

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(1) If an underdeveloped country experiences culture contact with a more advanced society, then it is probable that the underdeveloped country's traditional form of education will be weakened and a lack of orientation will result. (P. 160.)
Evidence: Case study of change in education among the Bambara of Upper Niger.

218F Fuchs, Peter, "Development and Changes of the Institution of the Priest-Headman in Southern Wadai, Sudan," Sociologus, 11 (2), 1961: 174-186.

1.018 In the Tchad-Territory lives a group of Negroid farmers called Hadjeri (after the Hadjer-Mountains). They have a cult of demons, the Margai, which is traditionally important also for political

5.16 life. Every ruling clan in a community is thought to possess the
most influential Margai of his particular unit. The headman,
7.22 created out of such a clan, was at one and the same time political
leader, judge, and priest of the community. The administrative
functionaries introduced by the former French government and upheld by the recently founded Tshad Republic, are now in possession of political power. Nevertheless, they did not succeed in taking over or replacing the whole influence of the traditional Margai priests. This role has proven to be a kind of residual of the old authority of headmen, and it could also not be fully overcome in cases where the new leaders converted to the Islamic religion.

Propositions

No propositions.

2180 Manndorff, Hans, "Zum Stand Der Forschungen Uber Akkulturation Und Integration Der Eingeborenenstamme Indiens," (The Present Situation of Acculturation--and Integration--Research on the Aboriginal Tribes of India), Sociologus, 11 (1), 1961: 20-33.

1.021 The mutual usefulness of diachronic (ethnohistorical) and synchronic (ethno-sociological) ethnological studies is widely ac-
5.14 knowledged in modern India. Here, there have been founded within
the last twenty years a great many Tribal Research Institutes.
7.232 Their scientific basis consists of research, conducted by the
former British Administration, missionaries, and European and Indian enthnologists, the latter mostly sponsored by the Indian government. This work, valuable as it is in itself, is far from being all-inclusive, and a recently edited Tribal Map of India shows a lot of gaps. For most of the tribes mentioned, there are only insufficient details of the demographic, economic, social, and cultural situation, as well as of the degree of acculturation or partial assimilation into the Hindu majority. But specific analyses of this kind are of definite practical value. The centuries-long cultural pluralism of India seems to give way under the pressure of modern development. The Indian government aims at an integration of the tribes into a more and more homogeneous Indian nation. There are signs in the planning of Indian scholars and politicians that this will be achieved not by a tour de force, but by trying first to understand the (past and) present conditions of the tribal cultures and then to promote them gradually into the officially desired direction.

Propositions

1.021 (1) If an underdeveloped country experiences a modernizing economy
and centralizing tendencies of government, then it is probable
7.232 that cultural pluralism will decline. (P. 33.)
Evidence: Ethnohistorical and ethno-sociological study
of tribal cultures in India.

218H Rudolph, Wolfgang, "Entwicklungshilfe Und Sozialwissenschaften," (Development Aid and Social Sciences), Sociologus, 11 (1), 1961: 4-19.

3.01 In planning for economic and technical aid for so-called devel-
oping areas, there has been in recent months a quest for help
3.173 from the social sciences. Some major problems still to be solved
are: (1) The question of interdisciplinary work in connection with
problems of developing countries. The populations of most of
them belong to non-Western cultures. It is very probable that
sociological and psychological generalizations valid for phenomena
of Western civilization will not be valid for those of other civil-
izations without testing and subsequent modification. (2) The
first task of the social sciences must be to collect and analyze
material from as many special cases as possible. Only by induction
from such a basis can one reach a theoretical organization of the
material, adequate to reality. A premature global perspective
implies tha danger of overlooking the really important but often
less overt, specific dynamics. (3) There can be no excessive
hope for the success of "social engineering," and energy devoted to
overly ambitious and far-reaching aims will be at the expense of
goals at once more modest and more attainable: development-
programs in specific time and place.

Propositions

No propositions.

218I Kobben, A.J.F., "The Development of an Under-Developed Territory," Sociologus, 8 (1), 1958: 29-39.

1.019 A caste study of the Bete of the Ivory Coast (French West
Africa) shows important changes in social and economic development
5.061 due to French administration, the missions, and cash-crops. Their
money is used in "ceremonial exchanges," i.e., for social pur-
5.111 poses, and not for economic goals. The social structure of the

villages constitutes an "exogamous patri-clan," thus creating a situation of female scarcity. The "bride-price" as a form of ceremonial exchange has taken on characteristics of "conspicuous consumption" due to the development of females as status objects. This traditional system of spending income can be changed through education, though the process will be a slow one since the traditional system of inheritance keeps the economic wealth among the oldest people in the tribes.

Propositions

1.019 (1) If significant resources in a developing country are used for ceremonial exchanges, then these resources will not
5.111 contribute to productive endeavors and the growth of the economy will lag. (P. 31.)

Evidence: A case study of the Bete tribe of the Ivory Coast

218J Kohler, Oswin, "The Impact of Europe on Africa," Sociologus, 8 (2), 1958: 125-140.

1.01 Within the area of European-African contact, three main periods may be distinguished: (1) The period in which the
5.14 Portuguese tried in vain to Christianize the Kingdom of the Congo (wrong methods and fundamental errors in the appreciation of African tribal culture and African social systems led to little success, and the whole enterprise was eventually doomed). (2) During the period of colonization, modern economy and the labor process determined the rhythm of acculturation (especially material culture and school education), while the socio-religious ties of the tribal community showed unexpected resistance to the influence of missions. (3) The result of this period is a changing Africa, full of tensions. During World War I, the African became conscious of himself and of his heritage, and tried for political independence. The end of this process appears to be an African culture with assimilated European and Christian ideas and achievements.

Propositions

No propositions.

218K Schoene, Wolfgang, "Medicine as a Factor in Acculturation," Sociologus, 8 (2), 1958: 113-125.

5.14 Medical norms may be said to be of extra-cultural origin and their applicability is regarded as potentially universal. Medi-
5.17 cine must be classified as a subculture--one which theoretically may be attached to any culture. Medicine's task is facilitated by its "objects," being persons who, by the very fact of their illness, have lost part of their integration into their own culture and find themselves in a situation where survival is usually put before the adherence to cultural norms. With this in mind, medicine's function may be described as "metacultural." Primitive healing is of cultural origin, and it usually serves a moral function. Its replacement by scientific medicine, therefore, may help to further social disintegration, and it is here that anthropologists should find ways of promoting the physical well-being of the people concerned, while forestalling any detriment to the integrity of their cultural context. The introduction of hygienic measures on the social level usually sets in motion causal chains whose ramifications tend to affect the most diverse spheres of cultural life and may, if uncontrolled, result in some unwished-for side effects.

Propositions

5.121 (1) If an individual is estranged from the rest of his society, then the probability is increased that he will be more
5.14 favorably disposed to accept innovation from external sources. (P. 125.)

Evidence: Author's generalization from studies of culture contact and acceptance of innovations.

5.14 (2) If more efficient and competing ways to do things are introduced into a primitive culture, then it is probable that the institutions of the primitive culture will be modified or destroyed. (P. 125.)

Evidence: Same as in no. 1.

219A Khan, A. Majeed, "Impact of Changes in Agriculture on Political
Life in Asia," Sociol. Rur., 4(3-4), 1965: 343-359.

1.02 In recent years there has been a close and dynamic relation-
ship between agricultural development efforts and political
4.09 ferment in Asian countries. This interdependence is related to
the remnants of Western colonialism and the emergence of Russian
4.10 and Chinese communism. Problems of food scarcity and political
instability are being accentuated by increasing population pres-
4.12 sure, in the restlessness of the people for social and economic
betterment, and in production and efficiency through changes in
4.14 farming techniques, land reform, multipronged programs of national
development, and specialized area and regional projects. Though
5.07 there is an increasing awareness of the nature of the needs, and
though some convincing demonstrations are occurring, the overall
7.12 accomplishments have not been great. But there is hope for the
emergence of a more realistic approach to the complexities of the
situation as a whole.

219B Mendras, H., and Y. Tavernirr, "Agricultural Revolution and Poli-
tical Life," Sociol. Rur., 4(3-4), 1964: 332-342.

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219C Rossi-Coria, M., "Problems of Planning in Underdeveloped Areas,"
Sociol. Rur., 2(1-2), 1962: 105-119.

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220A Malherbe, E. G., "Manpower Training: Educational Requirements for Economic Expansion," South African Journal of Economics, 33(1), 1965: 29-51.

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South Africa has since the war experienced the most rapid industrial expansion of any country in Africa. Although its population constitutes roughly 7% of the total population of Africa, it turns out 40% of the industrial products and produces 80% of its coal and 50% of its total electrical power. A serious limiting factor in the future development of South Africa is its shortage of manpower at the management and technically skilled levels.

It is estimated that, if South African industries were to be operated at the same level of managerial manpower as the United States, it would now require 1,110,000 managers, officials, working owners, technical, professional and kindred workers.

At the present moment South Africa has only 314,000 persons of both sexes and of all races engaged in these professional, technical and managerial occupations (excluding farming). Though the economically active population amongst the Whites constitutes only 20% of the total economically active population of the Republic, Whites contribute 67.3% of the workers in these high-level occupations. This is due to the superior social, cultural and educational advantages of the Whites.

For the Whites and non-Whites there are weaknesses in the educational system, particularly at the secondary and university levels which cause serious leakages of talent, and cause a retarding in general education as well as vocational and technical education. The disastrous rate of failure the waste of effort, as well as remedies are discussed and suggested.

Finally, there are in South Africa attitudes and traditions which adversely affect human relations, education and the utilization of our manpower in very fundamental ways. They have over the years generated fear complexes which have resulted in the setting up of artificial barriers which rob the non-Whites of those incentives normally operative in a free society. Fear is no spur to prosperity in any country, least of all in a country like South Africa which has such a great human and material potential. The Republic has one economy, not separate economies according to racial groups.

Unless our attitudes are brought more into line with world trends and our educational system so developed as to give training and outlet to human talent wherever it is found, particularly at the higher manpower levels, the recent rapid upward trend in our economy will be slowed down considerably in the foreseeable future.

220B Groenewald, J. A., "Book Review — Economic Planning in Peasant Agriculture, By Eric Clayton," South African Journal of Economics, 32(4), 1964: 283-293.

4.06 Linear programming was used to obtain optimum combinations of enterprises in six peasant farms in Kenya. Optimum plans were drawn up for conditions with and without mechanization. Within a certain range, net farm incomes were increased by employing hired labor. In ranges with too little labor, mechanization offers some advantages, which decline and eventually disappear with increased labor inputs. Addition of mechanization did not have any effect on either optimum organizatinn or income in ranges where labor is not restricted. These results raise some doubts as to the correctness of the author's model and, hence, some of his results. These results are used for discussions of national agricultural policy. In our opinion, the sample is too small for this purpose. A large variation in goals is also likely to exist. It is concluded that the marginal value product of labor is in excess of wage rates. Therefore, more labor should be employed in agriculture. These conclusions seem to be quite plausible, notwithstanding the above criticism. The results also show that mechanization of seedbed preparation is financially advantageous if done in times of peak labor demands. The author left the size of holdings — potentially an important factor — out in his policy discussions. In the last chapter, linear programming was used to estimate a normative supply curve of coffee in Kenya. The validity of the underlying assumptions of this supply curve is questioned, and thus also its validity. The main value of this book may be that it challenges the notion that disguised underemployment of labor is an inevitable phenomenon in an underdeveloped economy.

220C van den Berg, M., "Some Methodological Aspects of South Africa's First Economic Development Programme," So. Afr. J. Econ., 33 (1), 1965: 3-16.

1.120 South Africa's first Economic Development Programme was
released on 14 December 1964 and indicated the implications of
3.02 each of three alternative rates of overall economic growth. The
construction of the Programme took place in stages, namely the
3.03 initial calculation of a set of basic economic fugures for each
growth alternative, followed by the calculation of additional
figures concerning overall and sectoral growth for each growth
alternative upon the basis of these basic figures and any other
available information. This article outlines the methods used
to calculate these basic figures and presents the background to
the choice of the numerical value of the incremental capital-output
ratio for the purposes of calculating the basic figures.

The basic figures were calculated upon the basis of assumed future rates of growth in real gross domestic product. By taking account of the values of depreciation allowances, net factor payments overseas, and changes in the terms of trade which could be expected to accompany the assumed gross domestic product, net national income was derived. An allocation of this magnitude was then made between public consumption expenditure, private consumption expenditure, and net national saving. Net capital formation was forthwith calculated, mainly by using the incremental capital-output ratio. By comparing net capital formation with net national saving minus net foreign transfer payments the surplus or deficit on the current account of the balance of payments was found.

A special study was made as regards the incremental capital-output ratio, but because of unsatisfactory price indices the results are only of a preliminary nature. Values of 2.30, 2.20, and 2.15 were eventually accepted for the relation between net fixed investment and the resultant increases in the gross domestic product in the event of a 4½%, 5½%, and 6% growth in the real gross domestic product, respectively.

220D Groenewald, J.A., "The Effects on National Economic Welfare of Economic Interference in Favour of Agriculture," So. Afr. J. Econ., 32 (4), 1964: 283-293.

1.120 South African agriculture has been the beneficiary of input
subsidisation and price support policies. Indifference curves are
3.01 used to illustrate the optimum combination of products for maximem welfare. Government interference causes an expansion in agri-
7.23 cultural production, i.e., production of a different combination of

products. Welfare is thus reduced. In this new equilibrium, some products may in fact not be removed from the market at reigning prices. This will cause an even larger reduction in welfare. Long-run effects are even more serious than those suggested by a static model. Policies of interference give rise to secular maladjustments and have led to deterioration of the soil through maladjustments in soil use. Price support measures lead to political and administrative problems. They also depress the demand for other products and increase costs of certain industries. Thus they retard the growth of other industries. Nutrition of lower income groups is also affected by price interference. The benefits of price support measures become capitalized into land values. The real beneficiaries are, therefore, the present landowners. These benefits are not shared by farmers who rent land, or who have to buy land now or in the future. Export subsidies often accompany price support. This has led to international political problems. Price supports can also cause products of a country to lose a dominant place on world markets. Long-run welfare is thus impaired. There are sometimes sound economic and non-economic arguments for price interference. The effects of interference on national economic welfare should, however, also receive attention.

220E Kassier, W.E., "An Application of Linear Programming to Farm Planning," So. Afr. J. Econ., 31 (2), 1963: 118-126.

1.120 Linear programming offers a normative solution to farm management problems as opposed to the more positive approach of conventional budgeting. When the choices involved comprise many alternatives, straight-forward budgeting possesses definite limitations, and it is here that linear programming fulfills a need.

4.06

The returns to fixed factors and the labour requirements per time-span for the possible alternative activities, and the various restrictions to be considered were determined before the optimum plan was computed.

Propositions

No propositions.

220F Richards, C.S. and Mary V. Piercy, "Economic Development Planning," So. Afr. J. Econ., 31 (4), 1963: 304-315.

1.120 This article is a continuation of the discussion on economic development in South Africa following upon the 1963 Presidential Address to the Economic Society of South Africa (Volume 31, No. 3).

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3.14 It suggests that the kind of collective information scheme discussed in the Address can make only a limited supplement to the specialist information function which is seen properly to belong to the entrepreneur in a market economy. More important, the concept of ex ante coordination of entrepreneurial decisions is seen to necessitate collectively preconceived objectives for the economic system, an arrangement more compatible with certain aspects of the theoretical neo-classical model than with the social and economic principles of a market economy. The concept is compatible with the proposals for growth-point choice in the South African economy.

The Presidential Address has suggested a possible division of the functions of competition, which allows the asking, separately, whether economic budgeting is compatible, first, with the principles and modus operandi of the market economy and, second, with the principles of competition, concluding that in some instances competition is not a necessary requirement. This conclusion is thought to illustrate the danger of examining an economic system in limited economic aspects without reference to the whole socio-economic system of which it is part.

Even on economic aspects alone, the conclusions of the Address and of the present authors suggest that the material contribution of economic development planning to the rate of growth (the official raison d'etre) is uncertain, and this article suggests that the really important issue is a choice between types of socio-economic system--the market economy with its unique manner of valuation, adjustment and allocation of responsibility; and a departure from this which entails a change in philosophy and objective, and calls for a new category of State technique and artefacts of control in place of those of the market.

Propositions

No propositions.

220G Strauss, C.B., "Population Growth and Economic Development," So. Afr. J. Econ., 31 (2), 1963: 138-148.

1.120 The article is concerned with population growth and the economic development of an underdeveloped country. First of all, the
3.01 major objective of economic development is described as a growing per capital income, but then the question arises as to whether
5.07 there is essentially any relationship between material and non-material welfare. In other words, is economic development "worth while"? On the assumption that it is, the role of man in economic development is discussed. The conclusion drawn is that there is

a conflict between the task of man as a producer of goods and services for the satisfaction of human wants, and his task in reproducing in order to provide the labour resources necessary to sustain growth and development. In this conflict, it is suggested, there lies the greatest threat of an adverse charge in the ratio (per capita income) which was chosen to measure the welfare of a society. Reference is included to the demographic pattern that has been characteristic of most developing countries and the severe strain that is usually placed on such economies in the financing of new capital formation. Often the result is a neck and neck race between population increases on the one hand and population growth on the other, and a growing threat of Communism where production is tending to lose the race. The rate of increase of the various racial groups in the South African population is discussed and the performance of the South African economy in maintaining a steady increase in per capita increase is investigated.

Propositions

No propositions.

22CH Houghton, D.H., "Land Reform in the Bantu Areas and its Effects upon Urban Labour Market," So. Afr. J. Econ., 29 (3), September 1961: 165-175.

1.120 7.232 The Department of Bantu Affairs is now engaged in implementing the policy of dividing the Bantu rural population into two broad classes (one of which to be entirely dependent upon non-agricultural employment and the other group to be wholly engaged in farming). Obviously, this constitutes a vast rehabilitation scheme. It will have far-reaching consequences for the Bantu territories and important implications for those urban industries and mining which employ large numbers of migrant workers.

2571A Coenen, J., "Agricultural Development in Micronesia," So. Pacific B., 11(3), July 1961: 30-32, and 69.

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2571B Conroy, W. L., "Agricultural Extension Work in Papua and New Guinea," So. Pacific B., 11(4), October 1961: 49-53.

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2571C Pryan, E. H., "Agricultural Credit in Economically Underdeveloped Countries," So. Pacific B., 10(3), July 1960: 66-70.

4.05

2571D Warner, F. E. M., "Training Co-operative Workers in Fiji," So. Pacific B., 10(2), April 1960: 51-53, and 60.

1.052

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222A Rostow, W. W., "Four Needs of Developing Agriculture," SPAN, 8(1), 1965: 6-9.

3.01 Agricultural output, productivity and marketing arrangements in the developing countries must assume greater importance in
4.01 United States development and aid policy for Asia, the Middle East, Africa and Latin America, since, generally, agricultural output consistently lags behind population increases. The task in such areas is to move from the first phase of industrialization, based on import-substitution industries, into a sustained drive to industrial maturity, and it is clear that this second phase of industrial development requires increased attention to agriculture and the rural areas, not merely as a source of food, but as a source of industrial raw material and foreign exchange and as a market for industrial products. The following four criteria must be brought to bear on agriculture: (1) practical and relevant technical assistance; (2) credit to permit the farmer to make the change-over from low productivity, usually subsistence farming, to more productive cash crops; (3) provision to the farmer of reliable and fair prices through modernised marketing arrangements; and (4) offering the farmer incentive goods in the form of good, low-priced agricultural equipment and fertilisers on the one hand, and simple manufactured goods on the other. It is especially important to improve marketing arrangements and, in general terms, what was true of Europe in 1954, now applies to the developing areas, viz. that "distribution is a relatively neglected field of scientific study and investigation in Europe," this neglect springing partly "from false thinking, that is, thinking in the physiocratic tradition which would consider the process of distribution of goods and the provision of services as contrasted with the actual production of the goods" (in: "Productivity and the Distributive Trade in Europe — Wholesale and Retail Aspects," OEEC, Paris September 1957). Typical results of current archaic marketing arrangements are: gross wastage, especially in perishable goods; a mark-up between farm and urban market which in effect cheats both farmer and urban consumer; damage to the farmer's incentive to change to higher productivity cash crops; and a denial to manufacturers of important potential rural markets. Such considerations led the Inter-American Committee on the Alliance for Progress (in Mexico City, July 1964) to add to the Alliance for Progress a nine-point program designed to modernise urban-rural marketing arrangements. Similar programs are called for in the other developing areas.

222B Mcilroy, R. J., "Agriculture at University College, Ibadan," SPAN, 2(1), April 1959: 24-25.

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222C Sye, G. W., "Training for Colonial Agricultural Services," SPAN, 2(1), April 1959: 27-28.

6.08

223A Randell, John R., "El Gedid--a Blue Nile Gezira Village," Sudan Notes and Rec., 39, 1958: 25-39.

1.128 This is "...an account of the human geography of a small section of the Sudan Gezira...El Gedid is a group of five communities situated on the west bank of the Blue Nile twenty-five miles southeast of Khartoum and about five miles north of the irrigated area. From the human and economic aspect, this situation is one of the most interesting in the Gezira, since it has allowed the survival of many traditional agricultural and other economic activities, and thus enables us to see how these have been and continue to be influenced by recent events, such as the implementation of the Gezira Scheme and the improvement of transportation facilities."

4.184

Propositions

(1) If change occurs in a society, then the nature of the result will be influenced by, and will tend to conform to the traditional institutions and values of the society. (P. 37.)
Evidence: Case study of a group of five communities on the Blue Nile in the Sudan; not quantitative.

224B Basinski, J.J., "Some Problems in Agricultural Development in the Southern Provinces of the Sudan," Sudan Notes and Rec., 38, 1957: 21-46.

1.128 This article discusses problems of agricultural development in the three southern provinces of the Sudan, which comprise one-fourth of the country's areas and population. The following types of problems are analyzed: transportation; environmental, e.g., lack of rain-fall; and economic, e.g., labor and management difficulties.

4.01

Propositions

1.128 (1) The probability that an individual will work hard is increased if incentives for hard work are increased. (P. 37.)

3.15 Evidence: Unsubstantiated. The author remarks that the peasants place a very high value on leisure and that to change this condition requires that incentives be raised.

224A "Role of Agriculture in Indian Economic Development — A Point of View," Tata Quart., January 1960: 1-17.

The article deals with the failure of agricultural production in general, and of food-supply in particular, to keep pace with increasing demands emanating from a growing population and a developing economy. This failure has manifested itself in the shape of rising agricultural prices and increased imports of foodgrains. This statistical study reveals some interesting features of the inter-relations between levels of income, output and prices within the agricultural sector itself, and between the agricultural sector and the other sectors of the economy. The analysis points to certain relationships between agriculture prices and outputs which cannot be ignored in preparing the third plan. It underlines the urgency of raising India's agricultural productivity and as a sequel, of providing adequately for the development of agriculture in the next plan. It is concluded that a larger allocation to agriculture will eventually aid and activize other sectors, even though in the initial stages lesser investments will be available to them.

225A Hicks, U. K., "The Economics of Educational Expansion in Low-Income Countries," Three Banks Rev., 65, 1965: 6-29.

1.01 There are deficiencies in advanced countries and, in more
intense form, in low-income countries with widespread illiteracy
2.031 in the face of a rapidly increasing population. Some of the
developing countries are well aware of these problems. The topics
6.04 covered in this paper include: the situation in African countries;
impulses to expand education from UNESCO; conferences on education;
6.05 approaches to education; lessons which can be drawn from the
Japanese experience with education; planning an education program;
6.06 training of teachers; costs; causes of waste; university per
caput costs; so the bill for educational expansion will be a
6.13 very heavy one.

6.14

226A Watson, T. Y., "Progress in Agriculture: More Crops Grown to Widen the Economy," Times British Colonies Review, 20, Winter 1955: 21.

1.121 The Minister of Natural Resources of the Uganda Protectorate
reviews agricultural development in the territory, and
4.02 outlines some of the measures taken to increase farming efficiency,
such as the expansion of agricultural education,
4.11 research, extension, reform of land tenure, encouragement of
group farming, and development of estate agriculture by the
4.14 Uganda Development Corporation.

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6.082

227A Wickizer, V. D., "Some Aspects of Agricultural Development in the Tropics," Trop. Agr., 37(3), July 1960: 163-175.

4.02 The author discusses labor supplies and labor problems, capital
needs for labor economy, and research needs and potentials; he also
4.03 reviews statements by various writers in these fields. He stresses
the problems of applying in practice the knowledge already gained.
4.09

227B Cocking, W. P., and R. F. Lord, "The Tanganyika Agricultural Corporation's Farming Settlement Scheme," Trop. Agr., 35, April 1958: 85-101.

1.122 This is a study of the five-year-old scheme at Nachingwea, one
of three operated by the corporation. For the first season, 1952-
4.14 1953, 28 Africans were selected to farm holdings averaging 12 to
15 acres. By the 1957-1958 season, the number of farmers had
4.15 increased to 100, and the total acreage to 2,400. The following
aspects of the scheme are discussed: its history, objectives, and
4.16 organizatinn; a typical year; results obtained from farmers; over-
all financial implications of the scheme; current problems, includ-
4.17 ing high administrative costs, maintenance of soil fertility under
African management, and troubles arising from the mixed settlement
of farmers of six different tribes; and plans for future development.
Agricultural machinery is used, and a hard-working farmer
can profit greatly by this assistance, for which he pays willingly.
However, it is felt that there are still too many failures, and
too many departures of dissatisfied settlers at the end of each
season. It is suggested that future schemes be organized on a
tribal basis.

227C Coene, R. De., "Agricultural Settlement Schemes in the Belgian Congo," Trop. Agr., 33(1), 1956: 1-12.

1.127 The article treats the agricultural settlement based on the
corridor system, situated in the equatorial forest of the Congo
4.15 basin and especially those located on its southern and northern
limits, in the tropical rain forests bordered by anthropic grass
formatimns. The settlements do not consist in the introduction of
intensive methods of cultivation. The settlements are the nationalization
of the ancient system of shifting cultivation which,
formerly existing in a disorderly way, risked producing a total
destruction of the land capital. This simple method can already
show a notable increase in productivity, for it avails a ruinous
over-exploitation, uses tried notations and permits the agents of
government to establish in the native agricultural society more
fruitful supervision and propaganda.

227D Elias, T. O., "Some Current Problems of African Land Tenure," Trop. Agr., 33(4), October 1956: 287-297.

1.01
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The paper aims to delineate the trends in the practice of husbandry and in the nature and extent of customary land right. The appreach is more analytical than expository. It attempts to help those concerned with practical problems of land administration and agricultural development to obtain a bird's-eye view of the changes in the landscape as a whole, so that related issues may be thought of together when plans are being made for specific projects. The author deals with factors affecting traditional tenure, individualizatinn of land right, and agrarian planning and industrialization.

227E Johnstone, J. R., "Observations on Agricultural Development in Malaya," Trop. Agr., 32, October 1955: 274-277.

1.029
4.01

The author records impressions gained as Agricultural Economic Officer in Malaya from 1953-1954. The basic agricultural problem of Malaya is one of imbalance of crops with rubber being grown on 60% of the cultivated land. He urges the establishment of an "adequate" farm credit program. He notes that one of the main difficulties in connection with the expansion of adult agricultural education stems from the shortage of locally trained technicians.

227F Gordon, J., "Enclosure and Land Settlement, and the Evolution of West African Agriculture," Trop. Agr., 31, October 1954: 303-306.

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The author attacks the view that West African agruculture can follow the same route to development as did British agriculture. He sights differences in the availability of power and (e.g., horses, tractors, oxen) improved technical methods as the principal variables affecting different modes of development. He encourages the adoption of cooperative farming as the most efficient means of developing West African agriculture.

227G Igwe, D. C., "The Need for Enclosure and Land Resettlement in Nigerian Agriculture," Trop. Agr., 31, January 1954: 57-68.

1.012
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This article notes the recent development of individual land holdings in Africa, often in connection with agricultural schemes such as the Gezira, Mokwa, or the Shendam settlement. It discusses recent changes in Nigerian law and custom with regard to lend tensure and the problems and agricultural benefits involved in individualizing land ownership in Nigeria. The author believes that private ownership of farm land, suitably protected by good husbandry legislation, will give rise to increased productivity because the farmers will have more incentive to produce more and more and take better care of the land.

227H Robinson, D. A., "The Work of Agricultural Demonstrators in Southern Rhodesia," Trop. Agr., 31, April 1954: 109-111.

1.130
6.082

"At present there are over 500 demonstrators stationed in the native areas of Southern Rhodesia. More than 400 of these are engaged in agricultural demonstration, and the remainder on soil conservation work, community development, livestock work and forestry." The education and duties of these demonstrators, who are Africans, are described.

227I Lewis, W. Arthur, "Developing Colonial Agriculture," Trop. Agr., 27, April-June 1950: 63-73.

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4.03
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6.08

This is a discussion of the requirements for the increase of colonial agricultural production. This author declares that the plantation system cannot be extended because indentured labor is no longer available. Peasant agriculture must therefore be developed, and this requires an entirely new approach. The problems involved are formidable and have not received much study. Education of the peasant is the first requirement, and the second is capital, for roads and railways, water supplies, soil conservation, livestock, implements, processing plant, etc. New settlement schemes may be more promising in that the farming methods of settlers can be more easily controlled. Production increases should not be stimulated unless a market can be found for the crops.

228A Philipps, John F. V., "Problems and Prospects of the Agricultural Industry," Universitas, 1, December 1953: 10-13; December 1954: 5-8.

1.014
6.08 This article considers the means of improving the low efficiency of, and otherwise developing, Gold Coast agriculture and animal husbandry. The second part of the article discusses the contributions which a university college department of agriculture can make in education and research.

229A "Aid for African Rice Farmers," West Africa, 2312, September 1961: 1057.

1.01 This article comments on a report on rice cultivation in West
Africa, prepared by an Indian expert for FAO. "Of interest to the
4.11 general reader will be Mr. Parthasarathy's confirmation of the
backwardness of most West African farming and the great potential
which is waiting for development...he emphasizes that any major
attempt to expand rice production can only be achieved with government
or outside assistance, and must be regarded as a major social
problem -- rather than in narrow, agricultural terms." The author
describes the work in progress at the Richard-Toll scheme and in
the Office du Niger's development schemes.

229B Prothero, R. Mansell, "Sokoto Province -- Past and Future," West Africa, 2315, October 1961: 1131-1132.

1.012 The author describes the situation in the province in the light
of a recent announcement that £ 500,000 is to be spent by the
2.03 United Nations in surveying the development potential of the Sokota
and Rima river valleys. The writer stresses the importance of
4.11 such surveys in providing essential basic knowledge, pointing out
that many development schemes have failed for lack of information,
4.12 and that reliable data make for more efficient and economical
development. "The government of Northern Nigeria is in no position
to invest money...on doubtful projects. There is no scope for high
capitalisation with a return for only a small number of people as
in the projects of the Office du Niger...The results here may have
been encouraging but at what cost! This sort of development cannot
be applied to large areas in West Africa for the benefit of
large numbers of people."

229C Cox, Richard, "Expanding Ghana's Agriculture," West Africa, 2264, October 1960: 1201.

1.014 This article is about the many cooperative farming schemes of
the Ghana Farmer's Council. This organization is also supporting
4.17 a variety of educational campaigns, to teach improved farming
methods, and to interest young men in agricultural careers, so as
6.08 to check the drift to the cities.

229D Rees-Williams, David, "Satellite Farms for Africa?" West Africa, 1748, August 1950: 775.

1.01

4.06

To reduce the educational, technical, and financial barriers hindering the West African peasant's adoption of modern agricultural methods, the author proposes a "wheel" system of farms. "The hub would be a central farm founded by and answerable to the State or some other permanent authority. The rim of the wheel would consist of satellite holdings either farmed individually or by cooperatives. The central farm, serving the needs of the satellites, would breed stock and fish and cultivate seeds, plants, and trees, in every case eminently suitable for the country and its people. It would apply the suggestions of the Research Institutes and experiment with the introduction of crops new to the area. It would train those who desired to become practical farmers on their own account or in co-operatives. It would hire out farming implements. It would arrange for the collection and marketing not only of its own produce but also of the produce of the satellite farms. It would arrange through a State Bank for the necessary credits for the farmers."

229E "Resettlement on the Volta: 1," West Africa, 2347, May 1962: 563.

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This is the only article of a series of three which includes references to the Agricultural Department's proposals for guiding resettled farmers in the use of modern forms and methods of cultivation.

230A Wahi, S. M., "Indian Agriculture in Transition," World Agr., 5(5), April 1956: 16-18.

1.021

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231A Gordon, J., "Agricultural Education and Training in the Developing Countries," World Crops, 16(4), 1964: 27-30.

6.082 Agricultural education (in the universities) and training (at a lower level) in the developing countries are critically evaluated. They do not attract future farmers because intelligent and enterprisingyoung men shy away from farming, which is a despised and unremunerative occupation. Since this attitude is shared by many teachers, contact with practical aspects of farming is not easy to establish. Poor students are often granted a diploma as failure would mean unemployability. Courses in extension methodology and other disciplines are often still based on European and American concepts. Re-thinking of the whole problem with a view to the special needs of each developing country is needed; unfortunately, political motives and official attitudes frequently militate against desirable improvements.

231B White, R.C., and R.H. Boyan, "Training on Incentives to Economic Development," World Crops, 16(4), 1964: 51-53.

3.173 A training course on incentives to economic development, with special reference to agriculture, was held at Rarotonga(Cook
4.183 Islands) in April-May 1964. Some incentives discussed were demonstration of farming methods by technical assistance personnel;
6.08 non-agricultural developments, such as improved communications and public services; improved marketing facilities; credit, and the various activities of cooperatives. The transition from traditional to modern farming practices is often hampered by cumstomary attitudes and systems of land ownership; limitations of this kind may be more damaging than is the lack of incentives.

231C Fishlock, C.W.L., "Education in Tropical Agriculture," World Crops, 5, July 1953: 270-272.

1.01 In attempts to guide development along sound and safe lines, agricultural education plays a leading part. This article discusses
6.08 the history and implications of education in East Africa at the present time.

Propositions

No propositions.

11

231D Grist, D.H., "Agricultural Development in Surinam," World Crops, 4, October 1952: 315-352.

1.039 After furnishing a condensed economic history of Surinam (Dutch Guiana), the author discusses two plans to aid in future
4.15 economic development. The Lelydop plan is designed to resettle Netherlanders, Creoles, and Indo-Europeans on farms in the Savannah belt. The Eijsvoogel plan is concerned with reclamation of of swampland in the coastal area where rice is expected to be the main crop. Two of the most pressing reasons behind Dutch plans for development of Surinam are the growing lack of farming land in the Netherlands and the growing pressure of population in Holland.

232A Vera, O., "Social and Economic Evolution and Education," Way Forum, 35, April 1960: 42-47.

1.03 After a few general observations on social and economic evolution and the development of education, the author briefly
1.04 considers the factors which must be taken into account in any project for the improvement of the educational situation in
3.01 Latin America: demographic structure, economic factors, politi-cal, social and administrative data. He emphasizes the need for
5.01 general and systematic efforts, in co-operation with competent experts and with the support of the general public. In conclu-
6.04 sion, he shows the progress already achieved in Latin America.

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233A Russett, B.M., "Inequality and Instability. The Relation of Land Tenure to Politics," World Politics, 16(3), April 1964: 442-454.

4.14
7.16
It has long been assumed, both by theorists and by policy-makers, that a large and prosperous middle class is essential to democratic and stable government. Nevertheless, the nature and strength of this relationship has never been properly established. This article presents data on land distribution in forty-seven countries. Several indices of inequality are correlated with indices of instability (violence, executive turnover) and democracy, controlling for the overall wealth of each country. Inequality and instability are found to be fairly highly correlated, and instability is especially common in societies where land is both distributed unequally and is the major source of income. The correlation between inequality and democracy is higher, but not perfect. Few countries where land is distributed very unequally are democratic, but equality is no guarantee of democracy, for land is distributed rather evenly in many dictatorships.

Propositions

(1) If a nation has an unequal pattern of distribution in a major source of wealth, then it is unlikely that that nation will have a consistently democratic government.
Evidence: Speculation.

233B Bhambri, R.S., "Myth and Reality about Private Enterprise in India," World Politics, 12(2), January 1960: 186-200.

1.021
7.16
7.08
The government and the public, particularly the educated classes, have been hostile to organized business in India since 1947. This is because, in the past, businessmen have been interested in trading, speculation and moneylending. They have shown little interest in creating industries and meeting social needs. However, this is due to unfavorable economic environments and shortage of capital during the days of the British Raj, and not due to lack of private initiative. The policy of planned development has created a favorable climate. This has led to increased industrial production since 1953. The uncertainty supposed to have been created by government policy has not discouraged private initiative as many businessmen claim. It is hoped that, because of the government's pragmatic approach, private industry will become more efficient, make the public revise its notions about private enterprise and ensure it an important place in the mixed economy of the future.

Propositions

1.021 (1) If in a planned economy a government is able to create a more favorable economic climate through increased state control of
3.13 economic activity, then private enterprise becomes more successful and claims by businessmen that government control
3.07 hinder economic development are no longer realistic. (P. 198.)
Evidence: Case history of India.
7.16

1.021 (2) As the volume of industrial activity increases, the relative importance of trade and speculation declines. (P. 199.)
3.08 Evidence: Speculation.

3.13

234A Mathur, P. N., and K. William Kapp, "The Transition From a Bullock to a Tractor Economy in India: Some Indirect Effects and Benefits," Weltwirtschaftl. Arch., 87(2), 1961: 333-350.

1.021 The article points out the more important consequences of the present transition from bullock to mechanized traction. The
4.10 authors discuss the arguments for and against the mechanization trends in densely populated pre-industrial societies. A possible way of introducing tractorization lies in the establishment of service co-operatives as centers for mechanization. A further chapter deals with comparative costs of mechanical and traditional cultivation methods. The authors are optimistic regarding the effects on unemployment and believe in "long-run compensatory employment effects" and in the "additional demand for labor created by service co-operatives and the use of tractors", although they admit that it is not possible for the time being to estimate these effects in quantitative terms.

235A Farley, Noel J.J., "Some Aspects of Government Policy for
Economic Growth in a Small Economy: A Case Study of Ireland
1948-1960," Yale Econ. Essays, 5 (2), 1965: 477-523.

1.06 This essay used the experience of the Irish economy between
1948 and 1960 to examine the degree to which government policy
3.03 should emphasize export expansion and the extent to which a
commitment should be made to policies of import substitution in
3.16 attempting to raise the rate of economic growth. Irish economic
policy until 1956 put major reliance on the improvement of the
4.11 physical and social infrastructure of capital and the exploitation
of import substitution in individual products. After 1956, greater
7.23 emphasis was placed on directly encouraging investment in the
private sector and production for export.

Despite the low rate of economic growth between 1948 and 1956, reasonable expansion occurred in the industrial sector, caused particularly by import substitution in individual products. The rate of growth of agricultural production was low, and increased production was sold mainly in export markets. After 1956, and particularly between 1958 and 1960, the rates of expansion of agricultural and industrial output increased and industrial exports expanded significantly.

Balance of payments crises were responsible for the low rate of economic growth. The major cause of these crises was the failure of policies of import substitution in individual products to reduce the significance of imports in overall economic activity. The balance of payments improved after 1956 when greater emphasis was put on the expansion of exports.

The Irish experience suggests that the achievement of rapid economic growth in the small economy requires an active participation in rather than a withdrawal from the world economy.

Propositions

No propositions; article deals with a narrow technical point of economic analysis bearing upon the economy of Ireland.

235B Ho, Samuel P.S., "Development Alternatives--The Case of Taiwan,"
Yale Econ. Essays, 5 (1), 1965: 63-144.

1.028 In this study a model for "projection" planning is con-
structed and applied to the economy of Taiwan. The economic
3.01 structure of Taiwan is reviewed, and a model which roughly
reflects that economic structure is constructed. The model con-
3.07 sists of two production sectors (an agricultural sector and a
non-agricultural sector), a household sector, a government sector,

and a foreign sector. By using this model and allowing certain key economic variables which are designated either as instruments or objectives to vary over a predetermined range, a set of feasible and consistent development alternatives is obtained by graphic methods. Finally some applications of the model in the analysis of policy and choice of policy are presented.

Propositions

No propositions; this is the application of a model applied to the economy of Taiwan.

235C Mead, Donald C., "Monetary Analysis in an Underdeveloped Economy: A Case Study of Three East African Territories," *Yale Econ. Essays*, 3 (1), 1963: 57-103.

1.016 This thesis is a study of the role of the monetary system in
Kenya, Uganda, and Tanganyika. On the one hand we explore the
1.020 possibilities of exercising policy control over the financial
institutions; on the other, we examine the interrelationships
1.022 between monetary variables and expenditure flows in the economy.
Money and capital markets in East Africa are rudimentary;
3.06 commercial banking is predominantly in the hands of three large
international banks, with headquarters in London. As a result, it would be quite difficult for a monetary authority to influence the loan supply function of commercial banks. The possibility is suggested of requiring the banks to deposit funds with the monetary authority equal to a certain percentage of their local lending. If the goal is to encourage the expansion of this lending, interest might be paid on these deposits. As with several other monetary tools discussed, it should be possible to differentiate between various categories of lending.

Bank credit in the area is granted primarily to finance internal trade and imports, although agricultural and industrial lending are also significant. Since these latter categories of lending are quite helpful in the development process, and since in the East African context bank lending is an effective channel for the inflow of funds from overseas, the authorities would probably want to encourage this type of lending at all times. With the possible exception of Tanganyika, the evidence suggests that a restriction of bank lending would have little impact on the level of aggregate domestic demand.

Propositions

No propositions.